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ABSTRACT

From the 1960s to the present, the complexion of educational administration has changed greatly. One reason is growing public demand for input into educational decision-making; other factors are found in accountability, evaluation, opportunities for women, human rights, teacher militancy and collective bargaining agreements, changing enrollment trends, pluralism and multicultural concerns, professional development efforts, special education, independent schools, and restricted budgets. This book, comprised largely of reprinted articles from Canadian publications, attempts to consolidate information and critique the existing concepts, procedures, and values inherent in educational administration. This approach is supported by the disproportionate amounts of stress, burnout, and role ambiguity in educators; the discrepancy between educational objectives and real life; and the public's lack of confidence in education. The eight articles in part I address the current Canadian scene, and part II reviews five relevant books concerning educational and private-sector management issues. Part III articles capture the essence of administration, touching on bureaucracy, administering without ulcers, democracy in home and school, theory-practice concerns, graduate student selection, and publishing issues. Part IV discusses the future of educational administration, focusing on educational priorities, theory development, and the spiritual and practical concerns facing tomorrow's administrators. Included are an index, numerous chapter references, and a bibliography of 422 references. (MLH)

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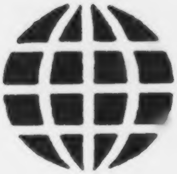

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Background

Douglas J. Thom is a professor of Educational Administration, Faculty of Education, Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario, Canada. He trained at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto. Previously he taught at the University of Saskatchewan and the University of Hong Kong, where he was Course Director of Advanced Studies in Educational Management. Dr. Thom has published many items in the international context including *"A Teaching Bibliography for Educational Administration"*. His Ph.D. Thesis was awarded honourable mention as the most outstanding in Canada for 1979. He is a long standing member of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration. His wife, Susan, and two children, Jade and Wes, inspire him in all aspects of his life.

Daniel Klassen is a professor of Educational Psychology at the Faculty of Education, Lakehead University. His graduate work in Counselling Psychology was done at the University of Ottawa. Dr. Klassen's main professional interests are school climate, classroom management, and interpersonal communication among educational administrator, teacher, and student. He has published internationally and is active in conducting workshops for parents, teachers, and congregations. Throughout, he has maintained a strong family focus with his wife, Elsie, and their three children – Carmen, Matthew and Michael.

Vernon K. Gilbert is a senior professor of Education at the University of Toronto. His graduate work was conducted at the University of Bristol, England. He has authored many books and reports on education in his lengthy career and was editor of the Comment on Education journal (University of Toronto) for eighteen years.

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Dedication

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... and our students.

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Foreword

In the time I have been a student of educational administration on both the practical and theoretical sides, it has been a source of professional pride and pleasure to have seen the growth in the Canadian contribution to the discipline. Many of our number are now well known nationally and internationally and the trail-blazers have done their job well. A second generation is now making its way to join them and in my view the author and compiler of this volume is in the forefront of this group. Doug Thom served his time in the school system and since then has used his theoretical knowledge and his academic viewpoint to advance the field of educational administration. This collected volume of articles contains an eclectic mix of subjects and viewpoints, but at the same time there is an underlying theme of critical comment combined with useful information. Collaboration with psychologist Dr. Klassan provides a valuable added dimension.

Dr. Thom's values are always at the forefront of his work and he manages to convey a sense of professional pride in his work with a need to investigate the circumstances within which our educational institutions function. His viewpoint is always that of the detached, but caring, enquirer and commentator who has a deep concern for both the principles of administration and the problems of those who work in the educational institutions. This is a volume that shows all these faces and will be useful wherever education and its management are studied.

Professor V.K. Gilbert
University of Toronto

Introduction

In these times effectiveness and efficiency are completely necessary in education and its management at all levels — preschool, primary, secondary, and post-secondary. Forty years ago, educational administration was characterized by highly centralized activity. In many school systems Department of Education officials set a rigid curriculum for schools to follow, inspectors monitored the application of the guidelines, and senior students wrote examinations set by the Department. Universities and colleges were quite autonomous and healthy. Generally, high value was placed on formal education — indeed it was viewed as a panacea for societal ills. The roles of the educational administrator in those days was that of pure administrator and political link to central authorities. In the main, common sense approaches were emphasized.

From the 1960s to the present the complexion of educational administration has changed greatly. A main underlying cause is the growing trend of the general pubiic to demand input into decisions about education. Other factors are found in accountability, evaluation, opportunities for women, human rights, teacher militancy and collective bargaining agreements, changing enrollments or rolls, pluralism, professional development thrusts, multicultural concerns, special education, independent schools, and a general tightening of budgets. Support for post-secondary institutions fluctuates. Increased sophistication has entered into the scheme of things. The contemporary role of the educational manager includes that of advisor, mediator, instructional leader, and public relations person. The approach of the administrator now is a sensitive, humanistic one and, in effect, the administration theory-practice gap has been narrowed. It is worth noting however that in developing countries the sophistication is in differing form from that in places like Canada, Great Britain, Australia, and the United States. For instance, in the struggling countries, schools and school administration are valued especially for the production of skilled technical persons and the provision of upward social mobility.

The new sophistication has brought new problems and challenges. For one, administrative approaches have become so detailed and legalistically oriented that they often actually fail to address the concerns of the individual, be it teacher or students. This is part of the larger phenomenon of confusion and ambiguity about basic goals for educational systems. Also, we are beginning to fully appreciate that the human relations approach in administrating involves great amounts of time and energy.

This book is rooted in the belief that an important current need in education and its management is to consolidate information and to constructively critique the existing concepts, procedures, and values inherent in this activity. This belief is supported by the disproportionate amounts of stress and burnout in educators, role ambiguity in senior positions of responsibility, discrepancy between objectives for education and how people actually spend their time in living (schools often do not emphasize teaching skills to cope with change, to be patient, and to handle economic/financial concerns), and the public lack of confidence in education which are evident. These issues, to be effectively addressed, require improved leadership and management techniques for the future. Overall, the book has the flavour of facts and issues, and introductory and advanced ideas.

Most of the material which comprises this text was published previously across a variety of educational sources. Together it characterizes the interdisciplinary and international nature of the education discipline and it conveys a need for the application of more traditional common sense, and keen vision as administrators. Hopefully this book will contribute to teaching and will provide useful ideas for improving personal performance as a practicing school leader.

Many thanks to my colleague and friend Dan Klassen, Vern Gilbert, Bill Walker, Jack Antoniak, Jerome, Maureen and Chris Harvey, Marg Brennan, Beryl McCullough,Esther Lee, Kathy Lucky and my wife (Susan) and family (Jade and Wes), for their roles in bringing this text to fruition.

Dr. Douglas J. Thom
Lakehead University

Part 1

The Canadian Scene

Chapter 1

One More Time — "What Makes A Good Teacher?"

> *"One man can do little against a vast evil, but vast evils arise from adding together many little evils, and vast goods arise in the same way."*
>
> — Bertrand Russell

We have all known at least one person in our life experience whom we feel truly taught us something. Something that really mattered. A person that made a difference. It may have been an individual in a formal teacher role or perhaps it was not.

The reason why we feel good about this person is most likely that they did something that was good or right for us and which helped us. So much so that we remember them above all other "teachers". In this article the authors review what is generally felt to be the good teacher and then focus on the idea of the importance of this individual to be able to teach the difference between right and wrong.

The Literature

Over the years many individuals from both experience and research have commented on the qualities for excellence in teaching. Lists of characteristics ranging from a broad to specific flavour have been developed. One of the earliest and most extensive studies of teaching was Ryans' *Characteristics of Teachers (1960).* Since that time many others have presented their views, some in a research mode (e.g., Gage, 1963; Dreeben, 1970; Dunkin and Biddle, 1974; Sheffield, 1974; and Lortie, 1975) and others in a descriptive or biographical form (e.g., Evans, 1943; Kaufman, 1964; Jackson, 1968; Good, Biddle, and Brophy, 1975; and Greer and Rubenstein, 1972). The following list from Sheffield's research captures the essence of what this literature describes the characteristics of the good teacher to be:

- mastery of subject;
- thorough preparation and orderly presentation;
- high rate of relevancy of classes to practical life;
- encouragement of questioning and tolerance of divergent positions;
- enthusiasm for subject and stimulation of genuine learning;
- availability and approachability;
- care for the student as student and as a person;
- sense of humour;
- effective employment of teaching aids; and an assortment of ethical attributes that include sympathy, kindness, warmth and justice.

In a recent survey from the Faculty of Education at Lakehead University, students, teachers, and parents all mentioned the following characteristics of a good teacher: knowledgeable, understanding, disciplinarian, enthusiastic, patient, caring, impartial, communicates well. It is difficult to argue with these — in fact they all make sense. But we believe that there is more that goes into being an excellent pedagogue in the 1980s.

Some Additional Qualities

Years ago, to be a teacher implied a very submissive, conservative existence. Consider the following "Rules for Teachers" circa 1872:

1. Teachers each day will fill lamps, clean chimneys and trim wicks.
2. Each teacher will bring a bucket of water and a scuttle of coal for the day's session.
3. Make your pens carefully. You may whittle nibs to the individual tastes of the pupils.
4. Men teachers may take one evening each week for courting purposes, or two evenings a week if they go to church regularly.
5. After ten hours in school the teachers should spend their remaining time reading the Bible or other good books.
6. Women teachers who marry or engage in uncomely conduct will be dismissed.

7. Every teacher should lay aside from each pay a goodly sum of his earnings for his benefit during his declining years so that he will not become a burden on society.
8. Any teacher who smokes, uses liquor in any form, frequents pool or public halls, or gets shaved in a barbershop, will give good reason to suspect his worth, intentions, integrity and honesty.
9. The teacher who performs his labours faithfully and without fault for five years will be given an increase of 25 cents per week in his pay providing the Board of Education approves.

At the least teachers were expected to be a moral model to their students and society. And accounts are that in practice teachers did follow the rules. Women teachers did not marry. These were sober, religious, frugal individuals who were "married to teaching" and the students were their "children."

It is the case that some of the same expectations apply today. For instance the Ontario Education Act (1986) cites the following under a teacher's duties:

> (c) to inculcate by precept and example respect for religion and the principles of Judaeo-Christian morality and the highest regard for truth, justice, loyalty, love of country, humanity, benevolence, sobriety, industry, frugality, purity, temperance and all other virtues. [Sec. 235(1) (C), p.247.]

Yet in practice this is quite incongruent for the contemporary scene. In fact, the teacher federations have been lobbying to have this section removed.

The point is that with a general "opening up" of society expectations of teachers have greatly changed. And correspondingly have their behaviours. Many ideas abound about why people go into teaching. Among the reasons are the following: a genuine love for students, wanting to serve others, the good salary, the nice holidays, and a strong commitment to teaching and learning. It is the less noble reasons (e.g., holidays) that seem to detract from a full acceptance of teaching as a "profession".

It used to be that the majority of those who became teachers fully understood the rules and were willing to follow them. They really truly wanted to be teachers through what Merton (1966) describes as "anticipatory socialization". These were the type of persons who wanted to serve, to whom making money was not the top priority, and who did not expect to have a very "flashy" existence. These were, too, individuals who remembered every student and who gave freely of their time tutoring outside of class. We are not saying that this type of teacher has totally disappeared. But we believe that, relatively speaking, there are more individuals in teaching now who are there not totally for the proper reasons (of course a similar phenomenon exists too in many other jobs in modern day society). Evidence the great deal of "moonlighting" carried on by teachers and the prevalence of "work to rule". Teachers of old generally would not have gotten into these, at any cost. This is true of just a few today. And, to our mind it is among those few where the great teachers are to be found. Many many of the others do not fully appreciate the tradition nor the full extent of the responsibility that goes along with being a teacher.

What sort of responsibility are we referring to? Well, it goes beyond the basic ideas of Sheffield and others. It suggests several additional detailed characteristics of the truly excellent teacher.

For instance:

- — encourages creativity in students;
- — is able to put oneself in the student's place, to think back to "square one";
- — is able to balance classroom freedom and discipline among the students;
- — has great intuition;
- — promotes self-discipline and the application of will-power;
- — attempts to improve people not by "doing things" to students or by thrusting personal biases on students but by empowering students, to help them take active control, to aid them in making important choices (Bereiter, 1972, and Ayers, 1986 discuss these concepts).
- — has a reverence for life (its preciousness).

But, most importantly, the point we want to stress is that a teacher needs to be able to teach basic right from wrong.

The "Who Cares?" Trap

Our contemporary society is termed "pluralistic". A multitude of value bases are acknowledged and tolerated. Oftentimes one feels that absolutely "anything goes". Yet the fact is that our culture evolved from a Judaeo-Christian moral base and is still largely informed by it. Further our conscience is defined through this base.

A mistake that many people make, from our viewpoint, is to become so enthralled with pluralism that they define no particular set of values and morals for themselves. Many believe nothing and others operate from a different set of values in each new situation. No integrity develops. One can become a ship without a rudder.

We believe that this has become a problem with many in the teaching profession — and it is improper and potentially very dangerous.

Think about it. How can especially young, impressionable students know right from wrong? If their teachers do not know, then there are big problems.

We admit that we are weary of educators (and others) rationalizing very peculiar moral positions with a superficial reference to pluralistic acceptance and relative truth. For our Canadian culture there are some clear cut rights and wrongs and teachers should understand and hold to them. This takes considerable courage (often when one takes a firm stand we have cries of "Nazi!") but it is in the interest of students and a better future.

What is right in our culture? Being fair. Being honest. Working at marriage. Holding family together. Attention to health. Moderation. Emphasizing service to others. Believing and hoping and loving and appreciating. These are some key examples. Canadian teachers should be teaching these things. Do we need another holocaust to shape us up on these priorities?

It is not that difficult in our affluent "me first" society to fall into the "does anyone really care?" or "does it make any difference?" trap. Well, we care very much that the teacher is teaching right from wrong to Canadian students. This injects the highest quality into the teaching/learning process. Yet, in the impatient, highly political arena of education today not enough educators seem to share our view.

Today's Teacher Trainee

The reader will properly infer that we believe that the good teacher is a good Canadian. Right and wrong invariably has strong culture-specific ties. The better teacher is the one who is informed about our country — its history, its politics, its probable future.

The authors since 1985 have been conducting some research entitled "Motivation to Teach: A Study of the Maturing of Teacher Trainees.

The purpose is to discover why people are entering the teaching profession today. Previous research indicates a variety of reasons. Among them are influence of a former excellent teacher, a love for children, and to impart knowledge, perceived job autonomy and job security (Hanbrich refers to the "mattress philosophy" of perspective teachers — that is, teaching as something to fall back on!). During times of teacher surplus the influence of a former teacher is particularly prevalent as a reason.

For our study, the questionnaire (Appendix 1) sampled full year Preservice students in our Faculty of Education over the 1985-86 year. The group were heterogeneous on the variables of sex, religion, type of hometown, and type of secondary school attended. The age range was 21 to 45 years. Our initial work reveals that these individuals are entering teaching for job autonomy and security and perceived high pay. Enjoyment of children also ranks high. Appendix 2 outlines the general results from our study. Further, motivations changed little between the pre and post administrations.

Some further observations concerning current teacher trainees is that there are older people coming into training and the Lakehead University group is no longer just regional but represents all of Ontario (with a few students from other provinces).

It is useful to consider all of these observations on characteristics of teacher trainees and the characteristics of the good teacher together.

A Comment

In this article we have once again examined the question of what good teachers are made. It is a basic question of significant import at all levels of the educational enterprise from teacher training to university lecturing. Periodically it is important to review the answer to this question as societal and school conditions change.

"What makes a good teacher? We could summarize by considering what a good teacher is not. A good teacher is not excessively critical, not out for themselves and the money and the holidays, not narrow, not wrapped up in their ego, not lazy, and not a pagan. As well, this teacher is not one who is caught up in paper qualifications or what Dore refers to as "the diploma disease" and theories of education, at the expense of common sense intuition. Finally we hope that there are relatively few teachers left who contribute to the oppression of students as depicted by Jerry Farber in his controversial book *The Student as Nigger (1969)*:

> Our schools teach you by pushing you around, by stealing your will and your sense of power, by making timid, square, apathetic slaves out of you — authority addicts.

One very important quality of good teaching is the ability to keep the "big picture" before the students at all times. Our culture is obsessed with trivia. Trivia games and game shows occupy millions of manhours every day. Even though there is this possessive interest in trivia we know that most people cannot learn by picking up unrelated pieces of information in this way. There is nothing quite as lost as a lost fact. It needs a place of belonging.

Therefore the good teacher describes the big picture, the wholes, the bodies, the system, syndromes, and life itself, and fits the new pieces of information into them. When a student sees the familiar whole and sees how the unfamiliar fits, then learning occurs naturally and delightfully.

To forward our views we have first reviewed the findings from previous attempts to answer the question. A brief summary is made and we see that times have changed. From a time when things were simpler, more direct, predictable, and clear as to expectations of teachers (MacDonald, 1986) we have moved to a situation of flux, complexity, materialism, and rapid change (Thom, 1985). There have been vast alterations to rules of the kind for 1872.

Skills to teach are a "gift". To share these with students involves a gentleness and caring of which not everyone is capable. Life's reality is that we are social beings. Every teacher's life is touched by a joint emphasis on looking after self and working with and serving others. However, the world is not always kind to gentle persons with "gifts". It is critical for teachers to have moral fibre and the courage of their convictions. The pressures in these times are to make the education culture highly political and not very gentle at all. Educators can come to doubt what they believe is right and wrong. There are many "voices" we are exposed to — our choice of which to listen to is crucial. Perhaps the following captures best our feelings about the proper base for education:

> Froebel, in developing the concept of the Kindergarten, justified his "children's garden" through transcendentalism, the unity of all living things with God. Thus, the flowers, trees, open air, and handling of the symbolic gifts all had mystical significance. Today, in most parts of the world, administrators of Kindergartens are still guided in large part by Froebel's ideas. True, the "gifts" have gone, but the colour, the movement, the activity have not. No principal, no teacher, no architect involved in this area of schooling can avoid the stubborn realities of that tradition. Moreover, in the elementary school and to some extent in the secondary school, these ideas linger on. Dewey, whose influence on the education of young children of the world is widely and gratefully acknowledged, did not hesitate to acknowledge his debt to Froebel (in Walker, 1984, p. 16).

Good teachers teach by example and do make a difference in student lives.

Future Work

Recently in both the United States (Carnagie) and Canada (Fullan and Connelly) thoughts on the reorganization of teacher education have been presented. The main recommendation has been to renew a focus on quality teaching. Hopefully our findings could be of use to policy makers. Further, an interesting idea is to produce a video series on teaching techniques with various faculty members appearing to discuss their particular subject.

The authors' next project is to investigate the concept of locus of control among teachers and school administrators.

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APPENDIX 1 - The Questionnaire*

LAKEHEAD UNIVERSITY
FACULTY OF EDUCATION

To The Student:

People enter teaching with a variety of different ideas and views about the occupation itself. People also enter teaching for a variety of reasons. Your answers to the questions in this document will help us identify patterns and to see how these patterns match against the actual occupation of teaching. It is important to get your honest reactions to the statements included in the questionnaire.

Although you are asked to provide your name and other identifying information, your answers will be treated strictly confidentially. Your identity will never be revealed in any report. The personal identification questions will allow a follow-up study later in your training course. This will enable us to monitor changes. The questionnaire takes about 30 minutes to complete.

Work through the questions quickly, and write your response in the space provided. Thank you for your assistance.

Dr. D. Thom
Dr. D. Klassen -
Mr. L. Zorzes

* * * * * * * * * * * *

1. Name ____________________
2. Student ID ____________________
3. Major Teaching Subject ____________________
4. Second Teaching Subject ____________________
5. Division (P/J; J/I; I/S) ____________________
6. Sex: Male ____ Female ____
7. Age ______
8. How many years of part-time teaching experience have you had? ________
9. How many years of full-time teaching experience have you had? ________
10. Type of Secondary School attended:

    (a) Is it Public ________

    Separate ________

    Private ________

    Other Religion ________

    (b) Are the students All Boys ________

    All Girls ________

    Mixed ________

11. Religion ____________________
12. Your Hometown ____________________

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* Based on work by P.E. Griffin and G.A. Postiglione, Faculty of Education, University of Hong Kong.

The following list is used to see how much individuals will do in order to become a school teacher. With each of the following items you are asked to indicate how strongly you agree with the statement made. Circle the letter which indicates your level of agreement.

Use the key ... SA ... I strongly agree with the statement.
A ... I agree with the statement.
D ... I disagree with the statement.
SD ... I strongly disagree with the statement.

In order to become a school teacher, I would:

1) give up the opportunity to take a higher paying job elsewhere	SA	A	D	SD
2) be willing to teach during the summer vacation	SA	A	D	SD
3) set an example to students by giving up smoking	SA	A	D	SD
4) delay marriage for a year or two	SA	A	D	SD
5) teach subjects other than my specialty	SA	A	D	SD
6) work in an inferior school	SA	A	D	SD
7) take on a class with discipline problems	SA	A	D	SD
8) not question the orders of the school principal even if I didn't agree with him/her	SA	A	D	SD
9) favour the wishes of the parents of my students over my own wishes as to how I should teach	SA	A	D	SD
10) mark student papers seven nights per week for two hours per night	SA	A	D	SD
11) attend every faculty meeting even though attendance at many may not be compulsory	SA	A	D	SD
12) volunteer to take on after school extra-curricular activities	SA	A	D	SD
13) be available to offer extra help to my students every Saturday	SA	A	D	SD
14) visit the houses of each of my students once every year	SA	A	D	SD
15) join teacher unions	SA	A	D	SD
16) team-teach	SA	A	D	SD
17) commit myself to a 10 year contract at one particular school that I liked	SA	A	D	SD
18) teach in a school with a religious base different from mine	SA	A	D	SD

* * * * * * * * * * * * *

19) It is a great honour to be called a teacher	SA	A	D	SD
20) I am very satisfied with teaching as a choice of professions	SA	A	D	SD
21) Teaching is one of the highest status occupations in society	SA	A	D	SD
22) It bothers me that becoming a teacher minimizes my chances of joining another occupation later	SA	A	D	SD
23) I think school assemblies are very important	SA	A	D	SD
24) When I meet new people, the first thing I would like them to know about myself is that I am a teacher	SA	A	D	SD
25) Teachers are conscientious people	SA	A	D	SD
26) Teachers usually care for/about the people they teach	SA	A	D	SD
27) Most people enter the teaching profession because of the long vacation period	SA	A	D	SD

28) Most people entering the teaching profession perceive that they will be working autonomously and be their own boss in the classroom.......................... SA A D SD

29) Teaching at any level is very stressful in comparison to other jobs.......................... SA A D SD

30) Working very intensely for only 10 months of the year accurately describes the work life of a teacher..... SA A D SD

31) Today, teachers are looked upon by other members of society as being lazy non-productive members of society.. SA A D SD

32) Teaching is not a profession that demands much physical effort.................................. SA A D SD

33) Board of Education superintendents and principals are generally very intelligent and shrewd people.... SA A D SD

34) Teaching is a profession that offers a person upward mobility.................................. SA A D SD

35) Will you be happy being a secure- middle class member of society and slotted as such?.............. SA A D SD

36) At present, curriculum guidelines and course selection for students offers them too much freedom.. SA A D SD

37) I am attracted to the teaching profession because of job security.................................. SA A D SD

38) Teacher salary is not a factor in my decision to become a teacher.................................. SA A D SD

39) Short work days attract me to the teaching profession.. SA A D SD

40) Most people aspiring to become teachers are very caring people...................................... SA A D SD

41) My former teachers are a strong factor in my decision to enter the teaching profession........... SA A D SD

42) My parents were/are a strong factor in my decision to enter the teaching profession.................... SA A D SD

43) My spouse (or perceived/future spouse if not married) will be proud of me if I am a teacher...... SA A D SD

44) Teacher burn-out is a myth.......................... SA A D SD

45) Teacher burn-out, if it exists, is not caused by most teachers teaching jobs, but rather by them moonlighting at other jobs.......................... SA A D SD

46) Schools should operate on a 12 month per year basis. SA A D SD

47) School Board trustees are very intelligent people... SA A D SD

48) The "mattress philosophy" of teaching suggests that most people entering the teaching profession do so with the intention of teaching until something better comes along, but a teaching degree gives them something to "fall back on".......................... SA A D SD

49) Teaching pays very well for what a teacher does..... SA A D SD

50) Presenting a very good lesson is a very rewarding experience.. SA A D SD

51) Perceived friendly people in the teaching profession is a major factor in my decision to become a teacher SA A D SD

52) Teaching is a very satisfying profession............ SA A D SD

53) Teachers generally are very conservative people..... SA A D SD

54) Overseeing afterschool detention duty is not a task that bothers me.................................... SA A D SD

55) Teaching successfully requires much intrinsic motivation.. SA A D SD

56) There should only be one school system in Ontario.... SA A D SD

57) The fact that there is a surplus of teachers in Canada is not a factor in my decision to enter the teaching profession.................................. SA A D SD

58) Declining enrolment is not a factor in my decision to become a teacher.................................. SA A D SD

59) I view my former teachers (grade school and secondary) as people of above average intelligence.............. SA A D SD

60) I view my former teachers (grade school and secondary) as people of below average intelligence.............. SA A D SD

61) Teachers can work as hard or as little as they want.. SA A D SD

62) The fact that all teachers receive the same pay regardless of lesson preparation effort and involvement in extra-curricular activities does not bother me... SA A D SD

63) Taking summer upgrading courses during the months of July and August would not bother me.................. SA A D SD

64) I perceive teaching to involve much task repetition.. SA A D SD

* * * * * * * * * * * * *

65) In considering your former teachers at the three levels of education you have experienced, how would you rate them in terms of basic intelligence in comparison to other people of their generation.

	Intelligence low ⟶ high			
a) Elementary School Teachers (Gr.1-8)	1	2	3	4
b) Secondary School Teachers	1	2	3	4
c) University Professors	1	2	3	4

* * * * * * * * * * * * *

66) What was your approximate grade average when you graduated from:

i) Grade 8 = _____
ii) High School = _____
iii) College = _____

APPENDIX 2 - MOTIVATION TO TEACH:

A STUDY OF THE MATURATION OF TEACHER TRAINEES

General Findings

A. Student Teachers are aware of demands/limitations of the profession

1) 96% believe that teacher burn-out is a reality.
2) 80% are aware of the lack of job security.
3) 77% believe that teaching is highly stressful in comparison to other occupations.
4) 50% were aware of teacher's limited status within society.

B. Extrinsic factors of limited significance as motivators

1) 90% state that teacher surplus was not an important factor regarding their decision to enter the teaching profession.
2) only 40% believed that teachers were well-paid. Further to this point, 71% would give up the opportunity to make more money elsewhere in order to become a teacher.
3) working conditions not important.
   a) teaching year (summers off) was a motivator to only 20%; in addition 85% of students expressed a willingness to teach during summer vacations.
   b) perceived short working day attractive to only 25%.
4) parents were cited as an important factor in entering teaching profession by only 40%.
5) former teachers were cited as an important influence by 63%. Past experience with teachers remains significant but not as much so as in findings from previous U.S. studies. Fieldstra (1955) study deemed former teachers as the most important influence on students to enter the teaching profession.

C. Intrinsic factors are the dominant determinants

1) 94% felt it was an honour to be a teacher.
2) 100% believe that teaching is a "caring" profession.
3) 99% state presenting a good lesson is a very rewarding experience.
4) 99% state teaching is a very satisfying profession.

These findings generally support those of the Larry Korteweg and Grant Stephenson studies within the past 2 years in the Lakehead University Faculty of Education.

The Korteweg study established that students entered the profession with no feelings of "repayment to society". They entered teaching because "I wanted to do it." (me generation?)

The Korteweg and Stephenson studies also established that the opportunity to impart knowledge, be around children and to utilize creative skills were by far more important motivators than working conditions, salaries, or job security.

D. Further Evidence (of Intrinsic Motivation)

1) 85% willing to teach during summer vacation.
2) 92% would alter a personal habit, e.g. smoking, in order to set an example for their students.
3) 97% would teach a subject other than their specialty.
4) 91% would teach at an inferior school.
5) 94% would take a class with discipline problems.
6) 70% would question orders from the principal if they did not agree.
7) 83% would not favour the wishes of the parent over the child.

Conclusions

1. Those entering profession are aware of demands and limitations of the profession.
2. They are willing to make most any sacrifice in order to become a teacher.
3. Intrinsic motivators are much more important than extrinsic.

Possible Ramifications

1. Given the teacher's desire to be creative and the fact that teachers place a much greater emphasis on their perceived needs of the child as opposed to the parent, there may be considerable difficulty in implementing curriculum changes that involve an increase in structure (back to the basics?)

2. The number of prospective teachers who have expressed a willingness to work at times not usually associated with school instruction, would allow different approaches to be used regarding enrichment or extra-curricular activities. The possibility exists for schools to operate in some form on a seven day per week, twelve month per year basis.

3. Given the importance of intrinsic factors to teachers, the school's organizational structure should be examined. If a bureaucratic top-down model of management is being used, changes could be made to establish a more collegial, shared decision making environment. In addition greater accountability for providing quality education should rest with the individual schools. Teachers want the opportunity to be creative and have expressed a willingness to take whatever steps are needed in order to ensure a quality educational program for their students. Rather than constraining teachers through increased centralization, individual schools could be given both the responsibility of effective program delivery and the authority to take whatever actions necessary to ensure its success.

Chapter 2

Educational Administration in Canada:

Critical Analysis and Recommendations

> *". . . there is no aspect of education more deserving of disciplined study and research than the administrative process, upon which the efficacy of the teaching–learning process so much depends, and this will best be achieved through an international approach to the field."*

My first focus in this paper is an essay review of the book Canadian and Comparative Educational Administration, edited by Robin Farquhar and Ian Housego (1980) but this is only a means to my primary objective: to take inventory of the current status of the discipline of educational administration in Canada and to suggest desirable future thrusts. The book by Farquhar and Housego has been taken as a point of departure because it derives from the most recent (Fourth) International Intervisitation Program (I.I.P.) on Educational Administration (Montreal and Vancouver, 5–25 May 1978).

The main purpose of the Intervisitation Program is to bring together every four years academic and practicing educational administrators from around the world to assess the state of contemporary educational administration generally. This is accomplished through first hand observation in the host country, discussions, and formal paper presentations. Understandably the event provides a forum for defining priorities for educational administration in the future.

The fourth I.I.P. cost some one million dollars and 300 people, representing approximately 30 countries, attended. The program comprised three phases. Delegates first participated in an orientation seminar in Montreal. For the second phase each delegate visited two different sites in Canada and/or the United States; ten Canadian and three American sites were available for selection. Finally, for the third and main phase of the program everyone reconvened in Vancouver for a major international conference on the discipline of educational administration.

The Farquhar/Housego Report on The Fourth Intervisitation Program on Educational Administration

Farquhar and Housego's book contains primarily articles which evolved from papers presented during the first (orientation) and third (conference) phases, but as the authors state in the Preface:

> The articles in this publication bear only a modest resemblance to the conference papers from which they were derived. They have been heavily edited in an effort to achieve concise precision in the written mode, while endeavouring to retain the unique ideas and individual styles of their authors.

Further, several of the articles are not based on presentations at I.I.P. 1978; they were commissioned specifically for the book "in order to enhance its integration and to augment its comparative aspects." At the outset the editors explain that underlying the entire publication is a particular focus – a view of the contemporary educational administrator as a mediator among various internal and external forces that influence the formulation and implementation of policy.

Seven "Sections" of articles comprise the book:

Prologue–....	Leadership For Educational Administration in Canada.
Policy–......	The Administrator as Mediator.
Practice–....	Problems and Trends In the Field of Educational Administration.
Preparation–.	Contemporary Issues In Training Educational Administrators.
Planning–...	Promises and Limitations.
Prospects–...	The Future Study of Educational Administration.
Epilogue	

The Prologue contains the three major papers which opened the Program at McGill University in Montreal. These are "Unique

Factors Affecting Canadian Education" (Robin Farquhar), "Educational Administration in Canada: Concerns, Research, and Preparation Programs" (Edward Holdaway), and "Issues in Canadian Educational Administration" (Thomas Williams and Mava Jo Powell). In the last article the issues have been categorized as economic and demographic, ideological, jurisdictional, and administrative. Holdaway displays very good accuracy of information and the Farquhar piece, as usual, is thoughtful and logical. Overall, the book starts well with these contributions.

Twenty–eight articles appear in Sections Two through Six inclusive. Many well–established names in educational administration are authors – William Walker from Australia ("Some Comments on Key Themes and Issues in the Practice of Educational Administration"), Meredydd Hughes from England ("Critical Issues in the Preparation of Educational Administrators in Britain"), William Taylor, also from England ("Managing Contraction"), John Andrews from Canada ("International Perspectives on the Preparation of Educational Administrators"), and Jack Culbertson from the U.S.A. ("Educational Administration: Where We Are and Where We Are Going"). Some other increasingly known names in the discipline also contribute – Grant Harman, Australia ("Policy–Making and the Policy Process in Education" and "Policy and the Administrator: Some Comments on Key Themes and Issues"), Joseph Goldstein, Israel ("The Comprehensive Project for Deprived Communities in Israel"), Naomi Hersom, Canada ("The British Columbia Core Curriculum: A Case Study in Recentralization"), Philip Hughes, Australia ("Projected issues in the Preparation of Educational Administrators – Australia"), and Paul Min Phang Chang, Malaysia ("The Role of the Administrator as a Mediator in the Development and Implementation of Education Policy"). Other authors include educational innovators/planners Per Dalin (Norway) and Hans Weiler (U.S.A.) and the respected Toronto educator Duncan Green.

The book ends with one article in Section Seven, the Epilogue – Ian Housego's "Administration and Policy Making in Education: The Contemporary Predicament". In contrast to the strong articles of Section One which began the text, Professor Housego's concluding piece is weak. It is vague and pervaded by slick jargon such as "rational–participatory" and "reactive–adversarial" and generalistic notions about policy–making. Very little of meaning is conveyed.

The strengths of the book are several. First the mix of contributors from developed, developing, and underdeveloped countries, and from different panels of school systems gives the contents breadth and a truly international flavour. Second, the contents are useful in providing an overview of educational administration terminology both old and new and some framework, facts, and models with which to view administration topics. The Williams and Powell article provides a neat typology of issues – economic and demographic, ideological, jurisdictional and administrative. Getzels presents an interesting update on the classic Getzels–Guba social systems model. Holdaway's article conveys current concrete facts on Canadian educational administrative programs and provides a thoughtful analysis of difficulties in doing educational administrative research. Third, the book does give considerable information, previously not easily available, on the state of educational administration in developing countries. An article like Velayutham's on Sri Lanka, points out real differences across the developed/developing continuum with respect to such things as territorial administration and training needs. A further strength is the contribution that is made to cross cultural studies. Currently there is relatively little literature on comparative analysis of educational administration among countries. However, this literature is growing. It is an onerous task to do justice to such comparisons when one considers the many different cultural bases. Yet in recent years, through the efforts of individuals and associations such as the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and the University Council for Educational Administration interest has been created and several informative introductory materials have been produced. Robin Farquhar and Ian Housego deserve applause for their contribution.

The text also has specific weaknesses. For example, several topics and many key persons involved in the contemporary culture of educational administration have been omitted. Donald Layton (1978) in his assessment of I.I.P. 1978 was critical of the absence at the conference of some of the most creative thinkers in the field, including T.B. Greenfield, the phenomenologist. As a result, he says, the "intellectual thrust" was incomplete. Further, he confirms that relatively few Americans attended, perhaps because of a haughty attitude, perhaps because the program was held in May – which conflicts with professors' commitments, perhaps because the expense deterred the Americans too. Regardless many key names such as Donald Erickson, Luvern Cunningham, Walter Hack, Fred Carver, Dale Mann, Edwin Bridges, Kenneth McIntyre, and Thomas Sergiovanni are missing, and articles on relevant contemporary themes, such as educational law, finance of education, executive stress, school morale, discipline, and administration of special education are also missing. As for Canada where are contributions from people like David Friesen, George Flower, Tony Riffel, Brock Rideout, Peter Bargen, Doris Ryan, Ted Giles, and Brian Sharples, to name just a few? And from outside North America – where are Ross Thomas, George Baron, Barrington Thomas, Len Watson, and so forth? Furthermore, as Donald Layton points out, the theme of "multiculturalism" – one that would have linked all participants – was not presented.

Another specific weakness is that the concepts of policy making, policy process, and educational policy, which appear throughout the book, are not defined in a concrete fashion. Generally they are left nebulous and ill–defined. More elaboration of what is meant by these terms is needed especially since policy is a key focus of the book. Vague, general jargon and ideas are problems with a few contributions – Jean Hill's article, in particular, suffers from this, rendering it very out of touch. On this point we should note with concern that there is an increasing trend in the educational administration literature for authors to employ considerable jargon and to attempt to support their points by quoting passages from profound philosophers such as Aristotle, Plato, Sophocles, and so on; this often has the effect of detracting from the clear expression of ideas.

Critical Analysis of Educational Administration in Canada

The production of *Canadian and Comparative Educational Administration* motivates a critical review of the values, issues, and problems that are associated with and highlighted by comparative works of this type.

By means of comparisons the nature of a particular country's education system can be appreciated and better understood; the systems strengths and weaknesses are highlighted and solutions to problems may be discovered in another country's system. Most important, a particular country's situation is put in perspective. For instance, it is interesting to know that school enrollments are increasing significantly in countries like Sri Lanka and South America and that countries like Australia generally have downplayed local participation in educational decisions. Insofar as such phenomena are seen to be problems, Canada, for example, might decide to explore the potential for having surplus teachers work in other countries where there is a need, or to re–assess decentralization processes by investigating the efficacy of centralized decision–making schemes abroad. Further as comparative analysis becomes more sophisticated it is conceivable that a broadly based (global) philosophy of education could be determined and that more valid generalizations could be made about the directions in which industrialized versus less industrialized countries are moving. But the literature needs systematic development and any contribution to it, such as that by Farquhar and Housego, is valuable.

There are significant benefits to be derived from work in the area of comparative educational administration, yet there are some difficulties involved. Two main difficulties are (a) the common problem of insensitivity to differences between one's own culture and the culture under examination, which results in misinterpretation of what is observed and (b) the fact that most North American scholars in educational administration seem not yet to be clear about the essence of educational administration and yet want to compare to other countries. The latter has occasioned comparative studies that attempt in-depth analyses and syntheses which are rooted in North American norms and values. Many participants in I.I.P. 1978 saw evidence of this difficulty in that some of the discussion by the relatively affluent North Americans was about the many things wrong with western education systems, much of which must have been incomprehensible to the participants from less-developed countries.

The difficulty mentioned in (b) above has many facets and far-reaching implications. To elaborate, educational administration scholars appear to be "going international" without having agreed on a basic definition or focus for educational administration. This just adds to the confusion. Too many of these academics have lost sight of the essence of educational administration. I have argued elsewhere (Thom, 1976b) that educational administration is a discipline which at every level should be defined in terms of "leadership as it relates to enhancing teaching and learning in classrooms" and should be evaluated in terms of "what is most beneficial and educationally sound for the student". This necessitates a primary focus on such things as building your staff's morale, practicing ethics and integrity in interactions, and developing teamwork. This is the essence. Interestingly, though, in the Farquhar/Housego text there are no articles that focus directly on leadership as a process of enhancing teaching and learning in classrooms. Despite its real strengths, then, *Canadian and Comparative Educational Administration* is deficient in that it does not strike right at what should be considered the core of educational administration. More contributions by practioners like Duncan Green, and even laypersons, would have helped.

To me it seems that there are several ideas and phenomena within the contemporary educational administration culture which prompt individuals to lose sight of the fact that educational administration everywhere ultimately is all about teaching, learning, staff and students. These problem factors are my next focus and until we face up to them a truly excellent book on comparative educational administration will not be forthcoming. Specifically:

- There is not enough active thinking about educational administration in relation to the teaching/learning/classroom. Perhaps academics feel that there is not enough sophistication in this. In the Farquhar/Housego text only Culbertson recognizes this perspectively briefly.

- Educational administrators of developed countries often complain about conditions that are absurdly frivolous, particularly when problems in less–developed countries are considered. While many Westerners bemoan the lack of top career position opportunities and inadequate salaries, third world officials would be thankful for some assistance in just setting up educational goals and basic facilities for the thousands of uneducated people in their countries. Clearly these westerners are working from the set of 1970's "me" values (self–concern, career orientation, security and moral disengagement) which Getzels describes in his article. One outcome is that third world officials develop a rather poor impression of the developed countries.

- There is considerable lack of honesty and imagination amongst North American educational administration academics. Farquhar alludes to this in his discussion of "The Amateurism of Educational Administration", Weiler in his comments about the need for "enlightened humility", and Walker when he mentions the failure to admit to the mistakes in educational planning that were made ten years ago.

- Many academics oversensationalize the issue of "Theory in educational administration", many are content publishing materials of poor quality, and many put advancement to higher ranks in their departments above developing good content knowledge of the discipline. In the Farquhar/Housego book Culbertson develops quite an elaborate discussion on theory and concludes that the future direction should be the development of a "theory of practice" (catchy but not very profound); and Getzels further labours the discussion of theory, defending the lasting value of the original Getzels–Guba social systems model. Some persons argue that there is no educational administration theory per se. I feel that for years now people like Griffiths, Halpin, Culbertson, Hills, Willower, and Greenfield have long overdone the notion that there must be a theory of administration. Generally the whole debate is much too overdone. To me common sense suggests that theory is "information which allows one to describe, explain, and predict phenomena" and that in the discipline of educational administration there is such theory/information and it is of an interdisciplinary flavour, hence characterized by a healthy diversity of orientation.

- Too many important topics, such as educational law and the financing of education, are not given the necessary attention in formal studies of educational administration. The absence of direct references to such matters in *Canadian and Comparative Educational Administration* is symptomatic of this imbalance. One reason, I feel, is that too many high status academics have not done enough proper teaching – have not had to design courses and carefully analyze and present the content of educational administration. As a result students internalize only the broadest principles of the discipline. Moreover, I believe that the lack of teaching experience is what leads academics to lose perspective on content boundaries of the subject.

- The lack of imagination results in part from the fact that many of the journals around the world which publish educational administration materials (those in western Canada and the *E.A.Q* for instance) appear to refuse to publish worthy manuscripts because they come from certain geographical areas, or because they challenge the status quo. To my mind this has contributed somewhat to a "spiritual emptiness" in educational administration. Many scholars have little real pride in their work and justify conservative stances with talk about "having to consider many administrator friends in high places" and "having paid my dues". Free flow of stimulating ideas is stifled.

- There is an increasing tendency for educational administrators to give their jobs higher priority than their family lives. This may be prevalent in society at large, but it is wrong. Family is necessary to hold society together, to strengthen its fibre (Toffler, 1980).

- Finally, the motives of educational administrators who get involved in comparative studies need to be examined. Investigators need to have a genuine egalitarian interest rather than looking for just a nice vacation in other countries, or a "tax dodge", or material for a quick publication, or a better job, or new research money for their personal benefit. Refinement of educational management techniques & knowledge should always be directed toward the benefit of the great number of dedicated practitioners who deal with the real issues day after day.

In Sum

To conclude, *Canadians and Comparative Educational Administration* is a valuable book. Its contents convey the international and interdisciplinary flavour of the fourth international intervisitation conference on educational administration. Editors Farquhar and Housego deserve credit for their ambitious effort. However, it is fair to ask the question "Do the contents of the book accurately represent the contemporary total idea of Canadian and comparative Educational Administration?" The answer has to be "NO". Several fundamental dimensions of the current state of thought, investigation, and practice in educational administration, particularly those pertaining to honesty and imagination, are neglected and need to be addressed. Hopefully future books on comparative educational administration will grow out of this one and will focus more on what educational administration at all levels should be about – manage-

ment approaches that are geared primarily to genuinely enhance teaching and learning in school classrooms. Otherwise, as Walker (1973:212) says, educational systems are in danger of losing their motivation, vitality, and zest. The proceedings from I.I.P. 1982, to be held in Nigeria (the first time in a developing country), may achieve this.

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Chapter 3

"Overdevelopment" in Ontario Education*

> *. . . there will be continued erosion of teacher morale, trustee goodwill, and favourable teaching conditions.*
> -P. Hennessey in *Schools in Jeopardy*, 1979

In many ways the system of education which we have in Ontario is too grand. This has become clear to me from, first, working in the system at various levels and, then, working in another country — Hong Kong — for four years. These internal and external experiences together prompt my comment and concern.

The Old Days

When I was a student in Ontario schools and universities in the 1960's and early 1970's, educational goals, structures, and processes seemed quite clear and direct. Education in elementary school flowed into secondary education which in turn flowed into post-secondary opportunities which led into relevant jobs in our Canadian society. It appeared to me that my teachers enjoyed teaching. Administrators were firm and, more often than not, fair. Educators were dedicated to the purposes of formal education. Learning to read, to write, to talk, to count, to reason, and how to behave were the guidelines. These were prerequisites for becoming a responsible and satisfied Canadian citizen.

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* Originally published in 1985

I was part of the "baby boom" era in which there was tremendous expansion in education. The economy was good, roles in education were clearly defined and inspectors were very powerful.

In those years everyone was expected to complete elementary school and at least a few years beyond. In the secondary school there was an academic program, a technical program, a vocational program, and an accelerated program, together geared to students of varying interests and abilities. Standards (both student and teacher) were maintained through final exams set by the province's Department of Education. If a number of factors came together — factors such as one's health, one's ability to pay, and, foremost, one's having done well enough on the provincial exams, a student would go to university or college. This experience would create more life opportunities in the end.

In those days, too, curricula were quite set with a few courses optional in the high school, offered in a meaningful and logical flow to assist students in following arts or science programs in the future. There were night schools, summer schools, and correspondence courses for those who wished to pursue studies in that fashion. Also, extracurricular activities of all sorts were available and they were organized and well-supported by school staff members. Our elementary school teachers had fewer formal academic credentials than our secondary teachers and that appeared to be reasonable in the scheme of things; high school teaching required a subject specialization which was not in primary school. Generally teachers and administrators at all levels spent their careers in one school area and were constantly taking courses to improve their qualifications.

Granted, there were problems. For instance, the school curricula failed somewhat to prepare students for some very practical aspects of adult life such as completing income tax forms, and entering marriage and raising a family. Overall formal schooling stressed cognitive and physical development, with social development in the main being left to occur naturally. There was not enough school board consultation outside, little innovation, and little feedback. Further, students were unable to be very open about such normal things as smoking, drinking and sex. Moreover, educators were overly neurotic about boys' long hair and girls' short skirts.

At the risk of being accused of being too nostalgic about the "good old days", I maintain that my Ontario education was very good. We knew the mission. Despite what the philosophers and sociologists might say, educational opportunity for any person was there; yet the assumption was that formal education, like most things, was not going to be just handed to you. One had to sacrifice, put out real effort — work very hard — to reap diplomas, degrees and the like.

Yes, I admit that society then was more conservative, families and church were stronger influences, and things seemed more stable. Our parents' generation had developed a cautiousness and a reverence from living through world wars and depressions. But in my Ontario education we had direction and hope, we saw accessibility and relevance through effort, and when we completed secondary school and university we felt that we had something of quality and that our mind had been trained well. My travels to other countries since then has strengthened this feeling. Our formal education taught us self-discipline and the majority of us certainly did not enter the real world feeling that it owed us a living.

Now

Something happened. From the mid–1970's to the present, Ontario education has become overly complex and confounded. Under the Ministry of Education, we have reams and reams of paper describing all kinds of structures and programs. Confusion as to purposes and standards has developed. School curricula seem to be altered almost yearly. There is considerable mobility of teachers and administrators. Many are on term appointments. Royal commission studies are conducted one after the other. A multitude of educational newsletters and journals exist and there is a multitude of interest groups. Evaluation of teachers, students, administrators, and programs is overdone. Change and more change are the rule. There is an atmosphere of "Cafeteria" or "circus" or what you will. One feels that quantity is being stressed over clarity and quality.

It is said that changes in education go in cycles. Also it is said that changes in education reflect changes that occur several years earlier in society at large. It would seem that with the launching of the Soviet Sputnik just before 1960 North American Schools began to turn to an emphasis on science and technology. Enrollments were up and there was massive expenditure fueled by the belief that education would cure society's ills. Over the next fifteen years, first the U.S., and then Canada altered education programs away from the system which I had known, to a format of open concept with few mandatory subjects, a cumulative credit system and no provincial exams. Further, activity was intensified by the upheaval of values in the "flower-child" era. We had the Hall-Dennis report (*Living and Learning*, 1968) which promoted individualization of instruction. Then came school board consolidation Next came increasing emphasis on English/French and multiculturalism issues. Declining school enrollments and funding. Increasing political activism. And then came the computers.

At first Ontario was excited about all of this. The change and innovations were interpreted as fresh and spirited approaches to an antiquated education system. Society was "opening up". Equality of opportunity. Widespread human rights. Relative standards. Care for the environment. Nuclear arms protests. Abortion debates. Focus on the individual. Worker assertiveness. This was the new reality. The schools must "open-up" too. Hall-Dennis promoted this. Education was to shift from subject–centred to child–centred.

By the mid–1970's educators were beginning to seriously question what was happening. There was a feeling that standards were falling significantly, that students enjoyed choosing what subjects to take, but at the end of their program many lacked prerequisites for further education (Farquhar, 1979). As well, students were completing the secondary school program without basic courses in History and English. Cries of "back to the basics" began (or better, "forward to the basics"). Besides, international space programs, despite the promise which Canadian educators thought they held, were phased down.

Then the commissioned government studies began — PIJI, H.S.I., Interface, McKay, Collective Bargaining, SERP, OSIS, ROSE, and so on. These resulted in reports suggesting that we call to a halt, to reassess. More recently we have Bill 82, The Bovey Commission, and the Early Primary Education Project. More and more "paper" production and distribution.

I feel that, however we have arrived at it, Ontario education now is suffering from what I would call "overdevelopment". This has resulted in the situation whereby a large number of students are not getting formally educated. I say this from experience, reading, and intuition as a serious education professional. To me often too much is made of the need to support opinions in education with hard research results.We know that statistics have a variety of possible interpretations. There is ample room for sensible ideas coming from educators with training, experience and vision and that is my premise here.

It is fair to say that "good" students achieve in any type of schooling system. And extremely "bad" students fail. But there is a middle aptitude group who, unless there is appropriate structure and discipline, will achieve much less than they could have. However, it is the case that, for several reasons, the greater proportion of less able students than years ago now attempt extra education. My belief is that a more rigorous schooling such as I had is overall better for students' achieving.

The Ontario system now is characterized by ambiguity in standards, contradictions in regulations, too much evaluation, too much mobility in personnel, too much choice and too little direction for students, and too much proliferation of paper. The schools are suffering from having taken on too much over the years, agreeing to requests from diverse interest groups to include all kinds of topics (many of them non-cognitive) in the curricula. Is our society really representing the view of the majority anymore? As well, with all the teacher aggressiveness we witness, one often wonders whether the system exists for teachers rather than for students.

Where Do We Go From Here?

I maintain that there is an excess of development in Ontario education. However, potentially the system is an excellent one if we focus on and monitor the current positive features. Admittedly we have a rich and active school culture with diversity, accessibility and flexibility but there are too many choices. There is a need at the moment for revision and consolidation. Again, a key problem is that educational institutions have taken on much more than they should. It is commendable that the schools feel a responsibility to assist in the "total development" of students (academic, spiritual, and so on) but they really do not have the full expertise and resources to do so. Other agencies are appropriately equipped and willing to share responsibilities. Educational administrators must learn to say "no" to some of the demands made of their schools. Then the education enterprise will become more realistic and more satisfying to those concerned.

Some of the positive aspects of our contemporary system are that we have highly qualified teachers and administrators and excellent school facilities. Further, we have achieved a high degree of equal educational opportunity and have good mechanisms for providing to special case students. Also, the Ontario Teachers' Federation has maintained educator professionalism quite well through all the changes and complexities. Lastly, having had Dr. Bette Stephenson as Minister of Education for such a lengthy term has created a type of continuity and stability.

Overall, more discipline and focus is needed in the Ontario system. Following are some specific suggestions for improvement:

- Educators, especially classroom teachers and professors, can in their individual educational roles promote the ideals of sound education. This means being industrious and courageous in concentrating on basic skills and in promoting curiosity, responsibility, creative problem solving and happiness in students. There is always room for "great" teachers and administrators in the system.

- Politics in education is extreme. It accounts for much of the overproduction of paper and evaluation and general paranoia. There can be too much input from different interest groups. Educators should reassert the need for decisions to be based on sound educational grounds, with the welfare of students in mind. To separate out the politics is best. It is worth reconsidering the need for some personnel in the Ministry of Education who appear to duplicate local school board services and also to phase out term appointments in the interest of creating more secure actors in education.

- Our system appears to be riding on the wave and the whim of technological development. Educators should be alert. For instance, by overdoing computers as educational tools is often to subtract from the cultivation of human relationships, particularly the teacher/student dynamic so essential to effective teaching and learning.

- New developments in educational finance and law are required (including at the post-secondary level). The formulae for recognized expenditure have become excessively complex; alternative concise tax bases, e.g., teacher variables, program variables, private sector variables, or personal income, should be explored. Streamlining of legislation is needed especially with respect to conflicts and duplication among our different laws, e.g., the age of majority, school statutes and regulations, and the Canadian Charter of Human Rights.

- Many seem to forget that our society is rooted in Christian ideals. This is a fact of our democracy. We celebrate Christmas and Easter, say the Lord's Prayer in schools, sing God Save the Queen, and so on. The early pioneers in schooling were devout religious people. The Ontario Education Act states under Section 235(1)(c) that one duty of our teacher is:

> to inculcate by precept and example respect for religion and the principles of Judaeo-Christian morality and the highest regard for truth, justice, loyalty, love of country, humanity, benevolence, sobriety, industry, frugality, purity, temperance and all other virtues.

This would apply to educators at all levels. I feel that we need to emphasize and practice the Christian ideals in Ontario education more. It begins with love and caring for our students and ethical and moral behaviours in our administrators. It is encouraging that we are seeing more and more literature on ethics in Canada education (Enns, 1981; Farquhar, 1981; Sharples, 1984; Thom, 1984).

- There are areas in which Ontario education is "underdeveloped". For instance the area of education of native peoples needs some input. Also, considering that educators time and time again acknowledge the profound affect which parents and home have on student school performance, we might consider the development of programs to inform parents as to how they do influence things. As well, the issue of credentialing faculty in post-secondary education requires examination.

Final Comment

In conclusion, Ontario education can be better. Egerton Ryerson, its original architect, set the stage for a dynamic and seeking enterprise. The system twenty years ago was quite effective and efficient. But now development seems to be somewhat out of control. Perhaps from here we need to adopt some of the quiet patience and long-term faith of peoples in the Far East. By now pulling in the reins we could produce a simpler quality system in which discipline and reason run very high. above all, formal education should be an enjoyable experience. With appropriate gradual changes, including in teacher education, we could more fully realize this ambition.

Chapter 4

Financing Education:

Some Models for the 1980s*

Introduction

The scheme and discussion that follows is presented from the view of an Ontario supervisory officer with a specialty in planning. Much of the experience for background decision making has been drawn from the secondary panel.

This discussion recognizes the strengths of the present Foundation Grant Plan and the decentralized control of education. After considering many alternatives to this Grant Plan we do conclude that the present system of funding is responsive to the needs of our community and reasonably allocates the cost to the rate–payers. Having said this however, one must also recognize that no scheme is perfect and we have some specific modifications to the present model to propose.

Equality

Thus we support, with modifications, the present Grant Plan. Local taxation and educational equality are basic principles. Equality can be defined a variety of ways when viewing it from a finance perspective. It could be viewed as the *equality of outcomes* where each child should be guaranteed the same achievement. Our knowledge of children and their learning processes recognize the inherent individuality and unique potential of each individual. Those governments and educational structures (private schools frequently) that make this a guiding principle end by educating only a select few — those that meet their artificial criteria. Another view of equality could be expressed as *equality of expenditure* per pupil. On the surface this appears to more closely meet the expectations of our society. It is the basis of the Maryland Grant Plan. Its great weakness, of course, stems from its inability to recognize and meet the needs of youngsters from a broad range of socioeconomic backgrounds (e.g., welfare vs. upper middle class), from diverse geographical locations (e.g., Red Lake vs. Toronto), and having very specific special needs (e.g., physically handicapped). Consequently we are left with a final view of equality to espouse, that being *equality of opportunity*. From a financial viewpoint that means providing sufficient funds to meet the needs of unique children in unique circumstances. Agreed it is not a perfect definition, but we believe a Maryland-type Foundation Grant Plan incorporating weighting factors and incentive grants can much more accurately provide this for our children than other proposed schemes.

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* Originally published with Paul Andrew–Cotter as first author

Our basic philosophy might well be exemplified by the statement:

"To each according to his need
From each according to his ability"

It is the second phrase which is probably the more difficult to determine fairly. How does one accurately identify a just measure of the ability of segments of our society to pay for education? Should it be on the basis of the services received (private schools)?; Should it be on their propertied wealth? (local taxation); Should it be on their income? (Provincial and Federal taxation); Should it be on their consumption of foods and services? (sales taxes) or should it be some combination of these? (present model).

The Canadian Scene

The history of education in Canada is significantly different from that of most European countries. Our democratic populous history demand that ALL children be afforded educational opportunities up to and including the post-secondary phase. It also demands that these be provided by the state through its various revenues. Not so in all cultures. But we must respond to our societal demands and they are honourable ones. Whether the educational experience has immediate economic value may or may not be relevant. We believe that a better educated person lives a fuller, more satisfying life regardless of his economic status.

During recent years significant demographic changes have occurred in the Canadian population. Fewer and fewer rate–payers have school-age children reaping the benefits of our educational system. Consequently, it is significantly harder for them to accept the costs of providing educational opportunities for other children.

This demographic change has also led to a change in demands upon the taxation dollar. As the population ages, greater demands are being made and will be made for a larger proportion of government expenditures to be allocated to Social Services and Health Care. This of course will leave a lower proportion of taxes available for each services of which education is a major part.

Declining enrollments have created other stresses on the educational system; it is much easier to grow than to shrink. In times of growth, problems are solved by throwing money at the problem. This does not always provide a good solution but it is easier for the clients to understand than the reverse which is so often true in the declining phase. Taking away things that parents, students and teachers have grown to accept as normal is not a popular political move. One must never forget that the predominant factor in educational finance is the politician acting primarily at the provincial and school board levels. They are motivated as heavily by the vote as by what is educationally and administratively sound.

Another feature of Canadian society in recent years is the politicization of small special interest groups. A perfect example is that of the local Thunder Bay Quality Education Committee. They attempt by political means to influence the course of education to meet their own specific needs. Recent developments provide excellent examples of this method. The French community, a small minority, has been able to lobby the provincial government to enact legislation around French programming and French governance which recognizes positive values but is financially and educationally questionable in many communities in Ontario. A second example with greater impact has been the extreme pressures exerted by lobby groups in Special Education which resulted in Bill 82. It has totally changed educational operations in our school system and has created large financial obligations for our rate-payers. Again, a most laudable result but very expensive and responsive only to a small lobby of a special interest group. The effect of special interest groups is growing and will have greater impact on our public system in the future. These responses to needs defined by the special interests groups further stresses declining resources in an age of growing expectations.

Some Options For Financing

1. A Shared Provincial-Local Scheme

This is our present model where sales, income and corporation taxes provincially and local assessment taxes municipally share funding for education. Its great strength is the stability of the local tax base and the reasonable fair charges for education through provincial government taxation. The sales tax of course hits the less wealthy the hardest but the income tax spreads the pain more evenly to the wealthy part of the population. Of concern in the local assessment base is the pressure on the retired and the elderly. Another strength is the decentralization of funding and subsequent control of programs. The checks and balances between the two levels of government insures provincial consistency leaving room for local initiatives.

2. Full Provincial Funding
This process (practiced in New Brunswick) forces the provincial authorities to include local assessment property taxes in there tax base. It ensures a more equitable distribution of funds but stifles local initiative and provides few checks and balances to provincial control.

3. Full Local Control
Two concerns are relevant here. One, there is a lack of checks or balances from another level of government. The second concern is the difficulty of extending the tax base to receive taxes or sales taxes by a local authority. The cost of tax collection might become onerous and we would guess that a larger share would be borne by the property assessment. Due to the regressive nature of this form of taxation, it is not desirable to increase its impact.

4. Federal Funding
Federal funding without control is highly unlikely. The Constitution Act makes this a contentious issue whereby clearly education is a provincial matter. Sources of revenue would likely remain similar to the provincial sources; in any case little would be gained other than a different party collecting the tax. Since the Federal Government is so remote from the local community we see little to connect it from a financial perspective. The one great strength in proposing federal funding is the potential for continuity of programs in Canada.

5. Right Wing Proposals
a) Voucher System
A voucher system will likely favour the wealthy over the less wealthy due to awareness and the availability of other funds to provide needed transportation and living costs.
b) Tax Deductions
This form tends to benefit the wealthy since it provides redress financially in the form of revenue on the marginal rate of the individual.

c) Tax Credits
Tax credits do not pay the full cost of education and the difference would have to be borne by the parent. This difference in cost would likely be very difficult for the low income group to raise, because it would be spread over a much smaller base — only rate-payers with school age children. These three schemes are simply not methods of raising more funds but would appear to result in the growth of private schools to the advantage of the already advantaged and the disadvantage of the already disadvantaged.

6. Lotteries, Plebiscites, etc.
These methods although used in some countries really place the educational system at the whim of the ability to raise funds although to some small extent that is presently true, it is indeed dangerous to base school systems on it.

A Preferred Method

The shared model of funding and decentralized — centralized control exemplified by provincial and local taxation and grants is our method of preference. We propose that a 60% provincial and 40% local split be established and maintained. This requires two significant actions-

1. Increased Revenues from the Provincial Grants
Increased revenues may be achieved in two ways — reassessing present expenditures and redirecting or tapping further sources. In studying *Education Finance in Canada* by W. Brown, one notes a significantly weak participation in educational funding by the business community. We propose increased changes via income tax, real property tax and capital gains taxes on Canadian business.

2. Decreased Local Costs
With declining enrollment, the local boards must be forced to reduce costs. Careful examination of this picture points out only two methods. One is staff reduction proportional to reduction in enrollment, which most boards are achieving. The second is much more difficult but requires the reduction of facilities. As schools become emptier, programs may be delivered with significantly fewer facilities. Schools must be closed. The typical elementary school requires $125,000 to operate without students. The typical secondary school requires $500,000 to operate without students. Undoubtedly local politicians must face the intense political and emotional groups of parents with sound consolidation of decisions about school plants.

Some Tinkering With The Present System

1. Ceilings

Present ceilings do not adequately recognize expenditures in Ontario. It is noted that all secondary boards exceeded ceilings in 1984 and all but three elementary boards did. It is obvious that ceilings should be more realistic.

2. A Grant Formula

A grant formula should recognize expenditures within ceiling as follows:

Grant = Recognized Expenditure — Ability to Pay

Ability to pay by a community should be restructured to recognize not only property assessment but also local income.

3. Weighting Factors

Weighing factors should be continued to recognize disparities in local communities but serious consideration should be given to individual program funding to replace some aspect of the weighting factors and incentive grants. Incentive grants create large hardships when they are removed without warning. Program funding where systems are funded on the basis of programs offered and student participation rates probably are a fairer, more plannable approach. Weighting factors must still be included to recognize basic costs independent of programs offered.

4. Average Daily Enrollment

The new ADE (Average Daily Enrollment) model directed at the secondary level does not adequately recognize boards' salary costs due to semestering. A better approach would be to change the contracting of teachers from December 31 to January 31 or preferably to base financing on September 30 data.

5. A Five Year Grant

A five year grant plan issued yearly by the government would give provincial direction and more clearly allow local Boards to do long term planning.

Some Issues

1. Separate School Funding

This issue revolves about people, programs, facilities and finances. All the above have significant implications. In particular funding of separate schools, if within the same funding parameters as in the past, could exert extreme hardship financially on public boards. The transfer of facilities and personnel have significant financial implications. Transfer of funds, debentures, salary scales, retirement gratuities all have the potential to create chaos.

2. Private School Funding
This has little merit because it provides extra funds for those who essentially already have a significant part of the economic wealth. Private Schools invariably control whom they admit. Who then will educate the "hard to serve" — emotionally, behaviourally, intellectually? Undoubtedly the public school system will become distorted in having greater per capita burdens placed on it.

3.The Martin Plan for pooling of commercial assessment has some merit. One great weakness found from research is that "the wealthier the community, the greater the demand for educational services. The removal of commercial assessment from boards would reduce their abilities to respond to gross demands. We propose that one should consider a type of regional pooling of assessment geographically. This might deliver some of the benefits of the Martin plan without experiencing some of its drawbacks.

4. Unified School Boards could reduce costs by the creation of one support service, one administration, and one board. Within a board, schools could be turned loose with parent advisory councils to develop their own unique programs.

5. Continuing Education Grants should be stabilized and offered as a regular program grant. One of the potential strengths and growth of support for public education is the offering of educational opportunity to a greater crossection of the population. The interest and desire is there. The funding to support these activities would likely make it easier for rate–payers to support the costs of education as they receive some direct benefits.

6. The change of society from industrial based to information based has created some enormous financial stresses in our schools. Our secondary technical and business programs are directed at an industrial age teaching skills that are less and less in demand. There is a great need to move our school vocational program into the "high tech" era. Large infusions of money are required. This is a national crisis. Infusions of Federal money as in the 1950s and 1960s could allow significant changes to occur that would benefit our children.

7. Provincial Collective Bargaining for teachers will not reduce costs but will likely make our system unresponsive to local needs.

Conclusion

The financing of education is an important consideration in our society. In this article we have reviewed some of the basic principles which now apply and suggest a workable model for the future. This is a shared provincial (60%) — local (40%) scheme, until there is an additional special circumstances infusion of funds by Federal politicians.

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Chapter 5

Student Searches and the Charter of Rights*

"The Liberty of the individual must be thus far limited; he must not make himself a nuisance to other people."
— John Stuart Mill, *Liberty*

Since the advent of the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, many areas of the law have been examined and re-examined to determine whether or not they comply with the various Charter standards. Public education has not escaped scrutiny during this process, although it certainly has not been in the forefront of challenged activities.

Legal experts in the area of education law pondered whether or not education would change with the Charter. In pre-Charter days, judges were not disposed to enter the arena of educational decision making. As an example, in Ward v. Blaine Lake School Board [1971] 4W.W.R.161 (Sask. Q.B.) a boy was suspended for having his hair too long for the rules established by the Board and principal. The court dismissed the case without considering the merits of the boy's arguments by deferring to the judgment of the administration.

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One major area of educational authority that was monitored with care was the power to search lockers and students. It has been of uniform concern across Canada and opposing views on how it should be resolved abound.

In March of 1985, for example, one school district in Alberta passed "Policy 915" which attempted to bring school policy in line with existing rights as guaranteed by the Charter. While the policy was prefaced by a statement that the schools have a responsibility to act "in loco parentis" (as a reasonable and prudent parent would) toward the students they serve, opponents on the school board protested. One commented as follows:

> "I have difficulties with this [policy] in that a 13 year old could get into trouble without parents knowing. Who is protecting the rights of the student?"

The main Charter provision which has been considered in this field is Section 8:

> "Everyone has the right to be secure against unreasonable search or seizure."

The Section, like the entire Charter, is subject to Section 1 thereof:

> "The *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms* guarantees the rights and freedoms set out in it subject only to such reasonable limits prescribed by law as can be demonstrably justified in a free and democratic society."

In a recently reported case, the Ontario Court of Appeal has now given some guidance on this issue of school searches (***Regina** v. J.M.G.* (1987) 33 D.L.R. (4th) 277). Since leave to appeal to the Supreme Court of Canada was refused, the comments constitute the highest legal authority.

The case arose in Thunder Bay, Ontario. The accused, a 14 year old, Grade 7 pupil, was summoned to the principal's office after the principal received information that the student had been seen outside the school placing drugs in his socks.

In the office, in the presence of the vice-principal, the principal advised the accused that he had reason to suspect that the accused was in possession of drugs and asked him to remove his shoes and socks. The student managed to eat a rolled cigarette that he had taken out of his pant cuff, but the principal did secure some tinfoil containing butts from the student's sock. A policeman subsequently arrived and charged the student with possession of marijuana.

At trial, the accused was convicted and fined, but on appeal he was acquitted. On further appeal to the Court of Appeal, the conviction was restored.

The Court first indicated that it did not need to decide the difficult question of whether or not a principal was governed by the Charter (since he derives his authority from provincial legislation) or was exempt as simply a delegate of parental authority and, as the parents' alterego, could discipline as could any parent. The Court simply assumed the Charter applied (which was, of course, the easiest decision to make).

Mr. Justice Grange, writing for the Court, then pointed out that "there is no Canadian authority that deals directly with the situation." He therefore reviewed a recent U.S. decision on point (*New Jersey v. T.L.O.* 105 S. Ct. 733). In that case, a student's purse was searched based on suspicion that the student was smoking tobacco, and traces of marijuana were found. The court found that students could claim the protection of the Fourth Amendment and had legitimate expectations of privacy. But, against that, was the "school's equally legitimate need to maintain an environment in which learning can take place".

The U.S. decision went on to set the following interesting standards for student searches as it tried to balance the competing interests:

> "the *legality of a search of a student should depend simply on the reasonableness, under all the circumstances, of the search. Determining the reasonableness of any search involves a twofold inquiry: first, one must consider 'whether the . . . action was justified at its inception' . . . second, one must determine whether the search as actually conducted 'was reasonably related in scope to the circumstances which justified the interference in the first place'* . . .
>
> Under ordinary circumstances, a search of a student by a teacher or other school official will be 'justified at its inception' when there are reasonable grounds for suspecting that the search will turn up evidence that the student has violated or is violating either the law or the rules of the school. Such a search will be permissible in its scope when the measures adopted are reasonable related to the objectives of the search and not excessively intrusive in light of the age and sex of the student and the nature of the infraction."

Mr. Justice Grange then utilized the above tests and held that the principal's action was "not only justified at its inception but indeed was dictated by the circumstances".

The Court then referred to the principal's duty under the Education Act "to maintain proper order and discipline in the school" and held that, given the principal had received information about criminal conduct, it was "not unreasonable that the student should be required to remove his socks in order to prove or disprove the allegation. . .

Moreover, the search was not excessively intrusive".

As to the accused's suggestion that the principal should have simply turned the whole matter over to the police, the Court disagreed and again adopted the reasoning in the *New Jersey* case regarding what type of information an educator needs to justify a search:

> "By focussing attention on the question of reasonableness, the standard will spare teachers and school administrators the necessity of schooling themselves in the niceties of probable cause and permit them to regulate their conduct according to the dictates of reason and common sense."

The Court next discussed what, if any, prior authorization a principal needs to conduct a search:

> "First, the principal has a substantial interest not only in the welfare of the other students but in the accused student as well. Secondly, society as a whole has an interest in the maintenance of a proper educational environment which clearly involves being able to enforce school discipline efficiently and effectively. It is often neither feasible nor desirable that the principal should require prior authorization before searching his or her student and the seizing of contraband."

Finally, the Court reviewed the argument that the accused was "detained" by the principal within the meaning of Section 10(b) of the Charter, and was deprived of his right to counsel. Mr. Justice Grange indicated the answer as follows:

> "The search here was but an extension of normal discipline such as, for example, the requirement to stay after school or to do extra assignments or the denial of privileges."

The above case is a welcome outline for educators to follow. It appears that the courts in general are prepared to continue to view school discipline as an area in which they will rarely intervene. It is obvious that judges recognize that school administrators have a broad duty to enforce school rules, and the rules and their exercise are best left to the common sense of the administration rather than courts of law.

As a final note, since the *J.M.G.* case supported a personal search of a student, it appears to the writer that a locker search, which involves access to what is ultimately school property, is even further removed from the niceties of Charter interpretation.

Chapter 6

Revive Commitment in Education College

A call for more enthusiastic commitment in studies and more constructive thinking in teacher training institutions.

Within colleges of education there seems to be a general lack of commitment at both the undergraduate and the graduate levels. This comment is based on ten years of experience, encompassing my own teaching training, secondary school teaching, graduate study, administration, student politics and career counseling, as well as teaching undergraduate and graduate student classes.

I first became familiar with this lack of commitment by listening to the stories of some fellow students in my last year of undergraduate study.

Like me, they were going for one year of teaching training at an education college the following year. The stories were that the next year would be a waste of time — a year of easy courses, assignments and examinations. I found that the majority of students who went through that teacher training year with me had a negative attitude about the experience from the outset, and they could hardly wait until the year was over. Further, I found that the majority of the college faculty, although they were nice enough people, did not teach by good example. They tended to be unorganized, to question poorly and to evaluate ineffectively. I remember two professors who were good examples.

In graduate school, as an educational administration student, I experienced other dimensions of this lack of commitment. Many of my fellow students were of the opinion that their courses were not very worthwhile. Several of them made no secret of the fact that they wanted their advanced degrees as soon as possible, and with as little work as possible, so that they could go on to more meaningful things. Also, many professors appeared to be least concerned with the teaching aspect of their work. Finally, I began to learn about the pettiness and hypocrisy that abounds in post-secondary institutions.

As a beginning graduate student I read two articles in School Review that seemed of particular importance. They were "My American Education", by Elaine Messer, a student of New Experimental College, Denmark, which appeared in the August 1970 issue, and Reginald C. Stuart's review of *Confessions of an American Scholar* (by Simon O'Toole), which appeared in November, 1972. These were spirited, provocative pieces that analyzed roles, purposes, relevance and direction in our academic institutions. I was struck with the authors' frankness and clarity of expression. Both writers called for a new commitment within educational institutions. They reported on the "innocent" and "helpless" student at the hands of a harsh, irrelevant institution, and I identified with this. However, I felt that some of the blame for the sorry state of affairs rested with the students.

From my own experience, I can see the need for a great deal more commitment by faculty and students alike within undergraduate and graduate colleges of education. As Stuart says: "University teachers sometimes worry more about their research and publications than they do about their students". Professors are generally expected to perform teaching, research and publication, committee, and field service functions. This is a heavy load, and usually the fewest points toward career promotion accrued from the teaching. Further, my experience of the last seven years has indicated that few graduate students of education are sufficiently committed to the academic work in which they are involved. Mind you, most enter the experience with positive intentions, but various factors gradually dampen these and sustain an undesirable situation. These factors include the poor examples set by faculty, talk of the declining value of higher education together with the visible status still afforded to those who have, unsure employment opportunities, indecision about the place of vocationalism and professionalism in university programs, and the general decline of discipline and traditionalism in society. For my own field of educational administration, two authors have recently presented other important factors: Edwin Bridges has called current training programs for educational administrators dysfunctional, emphasizing the disparity between the slow rhythm and reinforcing of subordinate behaviours in academic activity and the hectic pace and need to take charge in school administration, and Glenn Immegart has pinpointed the current fiscal crisis, the press for acquiring external financial support, the publish or perish syndrome, the disenchantment of funding sources with research in social science, staffing patterns, institutional policy, allocative mechanisms and the nature of collegial relationships as factors which limit sustained and substantial research in educational administration. All of these factors can affect commitment negatively.

In my view, this state of affairs is undesirable and absurd. It is incongruent with the aims and purposes of the university as they were originally conceived. As a result of a basic lack of commitment, many education students and professors are running scared. Such people develop the notion that attaining a degree, or advancing a career, involves Politicking with a capital "P". They continually search for shortcuts in their academic work, emphasizing form over content. And they select research topics, courses or dissertation committees on the basis of expediency rather than genuine interest and commitment.

Students who pursue graduate education degrees part-time also adopt these attitudes, but with some additional underlying reasons. For one thing, these students have less access to faculty, after hours. For another, often the attaining of a graduate degree is more directly motivated by how the "piece of paper" can advance their careers. Besides, my observation has been that the part-timers complain considerably more, especially among themselves, about their professors and their programs. Many of them seem to never really get into their graduate work. Part-time study, at the undergraduate level, often stems from a student's strong commitment. However, I feel that at the graduate level, full-time study is required if the student is to do justice to himself and the program.

Too many people in our post-secondary institutions are not dedicated enough. This in not entirely through any fault of their own. I have found that many normal, well-adjusted types become neurotic, inhumane, egocentric and even untrustworthy. Gradually, many of them let any integrity based on sound educational and life values which they may have had fade away for the sake of that piece of paper or career advancement.

I am calling for a "revival" of participant commitment in education colleges. It is a revival of the kind earlier promoted by Messer, and Storr, and Ross, and Morton, and less specifically by Farquhar, and Williams, in their calls to "revitalize" the discipline of educational administration. It involves sloughing off a host of what I term educationally undesirable attitudes, motivations and behaviours associated with entities like "declining value of education", "overeducated", "ivory tower", "tight employment market", "tight operating budget", "degree production line", "publish or perish", "tenure", and "irrelevancy". On the other hand, it means that the student and faculty member taking up academic studies must be motivated by a genuine thirst for learning and must recognize that such an education may not have direct utilitarian value. It involves, as Drucker says, looking on other people as resources and opportunities rather than" as problems, costs and threats. And it means that educational institutions must cease to reward and reinforce "qualities of the heart", "intellectual honesty", "tough-mindedness", "discovering the world as new, as one's own", "a total experience", "complete engagement", "patience", "scholarly greatness", "courage", "resourcefulness" and, as Messer says, "hopefulness", "relevance", "complication", "involvement", "life immersion", and the "unfathomable", should be the guidelines. Slough off the passive role! And slough off artificial divisions of subject matter and the limits and requirements for belonging in any one of them.

Within colleges of education there is a need for many confident, gutsy, personable and, above all, happy people. Howard Slusher, would call them "authentic" people. These are people who are not swayed by media reports of gloom and doom in the employment of university graduates. They realize that we are into an age of gloom and doom in media reporting, that bad news is more popular than good news no matter what the actual facts are. Further, these people are motivated primarily by that genuine thirst for knowledge and hope to feed their minds. They take an active role in their endeavours. Such people are able to laugh and enjoy. They do not view things as so awfully serious and catastrophic as do many within post-secondary education today.

These days, too many people, in a terribly serious mood, spend months preparing statistical research reports or articles on declining enrollments or unemployable academics or tight educational money or society's general dissatisfaction with education. Unfortunately, these individuals abound, like family spectres bent on harassing the living. We need more academics like O'Toole, who can reflect on his university experiences with a certain amount of levity, using chapter headings like "Getting my Dissertation Done before my Hair Fell Out" and "Did I Win Friends and Fame and Make a Mint with my Textbooks;" or like Joseph Lauwerys who, in reporting results from a public survey about Canadian education, is encouraging for a change, as follows:

"No one seems to be bitterly dissatisfied with what is going on nor deeply hostile to things as they are. There is no angry resentment of the past, no desire to change system de fond en comble."

"Preferences are expressed gently and quietly, apparently with the realization that improvements could and should be brought about — but slowly and not drastically: extremes should be avoided, change should be temperate. There seems to be little worry or excitement, a great deal of down-to-earth common sense."

"All this is quite exasperating for impatient reformers but comforting evidence of stability and continuity. We have here a magnificent example of the true marriage of tremendous natural resources and great social vitality, anchored in proper respect for the past, and what it has to teach the present."

Not often do educational researchers take such a positive view — let's have more of it! Sure, not everything is roses, but I say that within education colleges we need more students and faculty (and supporting personnel) with a positive, supportive and exploratory bent: currently there are far too many cynics and conformists. There should be more enjoyment and general pleasantness within these colleges. Realism and efficiency need not suffer.

Elitism? Perhaps; in the sense that elitism is "a principle, essential to the quality of life", which Boston University president John R. Silber has used. In this sense my belief that a university should strive for other than the commonplace and not be content with mediocrity could be termed elitist. Clearly I feel that certain individuals are more desirable than others in the university settings. However, I do not see myself as elitist in the sense of being pompous about possessing a degree or in the sense of wishing to deny anyone access to education. I believe that people can change through taking education programs. On the point of full-time versus part-time graduate study, I do believe that the former is necessary for commitment and subsequent effectiveness.

My message is simple. Let us revive joyous commitment in studies in education. Let us make colleges of education a more pleasant place to be, with many fewer passive complainers and many more authentic, active, supportive and constructive types. I have found complainers and phonies to be abundant within education generally. I find their "mentality" unacceptable. The active, authentic, supportive and constructive types I have found to create refreshing, comfortable, humane and high quality things — above all, I like their approaching endeavours with the idea that "nobody ever said life was going to be easy."

Meanwhile, I am not denying that many situations within education are unpleasant and call for political astuteness. There seems to be a widespread notion that strongly authentic (humanistic) persons cannot be politically astute, that such persons are "soft." I have found otherwise, mainly through the example of educators like the late Don Graham, a mentor of mine several years ago. Those who knew him know what I mean. For those who did not, let us just say that Don was an example of an extremely humanistic person who could be incredibly tough when he had to be. He was one of the very few individuals I have known who attempted to instill in his students great values and great moral criteria on which to structure their lives . . . a tremendous teacher and friend.

In conclusion, allow me my emotionalism, my possible naivete, any terms left undefined, or the occasional non sequitur. Calling for revival involves these things. My wish is that you grasp the essence of my comment and somewhat agree with it, act it out and pass it on to others. Rest assured the preaching of gloom and doom will continue; many people cannot interpret things in any other way. Let us, however, adopt a better point of view.

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7

Chapter

"Tough" and "Easy" Academic Programs in Ontario Secondary Schools:

The Practitioner's View and Some Implications*

The nature and difficulty of courses offered in Ontario Secondary schools is a popular current topic of conversation. The so-called "back to the basics" movement has gained considerable support recently in spite of the claim by many teachers that they never really left the basics. Universities and colleges have questioned the calibre of incoming freshmen in such areas as English language writing and in some cases have instituted examinations to test these skills. Furthermore, the Ontario Ministry of Education has reintroduced compulsory English, Mathematics, Canadian Social Studies, and Science into a secondary school program previously characterized by considerable student freedom in course selection.

This article reports an empirical study of the difficulty of various secondary school student programs as perceived by teachers and administrators in Ontario. Although "difficulty" is a subjective concept, something that depends on the eyes of the beholder, we found a high degree of consensus among judges as to which programs are easy and which are difficult.

There has long existed an informal notion of the relative difficulty of courses and programs. Academic programs are considered more difficult than technical, commercial, and vocational. Mathematics and science subjects are considered more difficult than those in mechanics, refrigeration, welding or metallurgy. In Ontario high schools, traditionally the five year Arts and Science program with English, Science, Mathematics, Social Studies and language subjects, was considered the most difficult: the Technical and Commercial four-year programs, with a concentration of shop and business subjects respectively, were considered next most difficult, and two-year Vocational programs were deemed least difficult. The "smart", university-bound students took the "tough" five-year academic program, usually at a "collegiate", while those of less academic capability took the other programs. Teachers especially thought of the programs and students this way and, in the days when there were province-wide Grade 13 final exams set by the Ontario Department of Education at timetabling time much vying went on among the senior grade teachers to teach the best five-year Arts and Science students. These students were "the academic cream of the crop", "a pleasure to teach", and their provincial final exam marks would reflect well on their teachers.

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* Originally published in 1980.

The introduction of the credit system, with its basis of recognizing individual student differences in deciding on appropriate academic curricula, promoted a de-emphasis of the idea that some course programs could be more difficult than others; yet teachers, administrators, parents and students still think of particular programs as "tougher" than others. For example, prior to conducting their survey, the authors interviewed many in education who stated that the Arts and Science programs are still referred to as the toughest and that the best, usually university-aspiring, students build such a program from the credit offerings. Many secondary school principals, enunciating concern about the academic welfare of students, have made certain subjects mandatory, thereby creating an overall school curriculum little changed from earlier years. In fact, the credit system may have provided considerable "window dressing" for an underlying basic scheme of most difficult to least difficult course programs. It is the case that under the credit system, credits are labeled enriched, advanced, general and basic according to level of difficulty, and throughout the literature on Ontario programs, including individual school prospectuses, reference is made to the "basic", "essential", "fundamental", or "academic" subjects of English, Mathematics, Science, French, History, and Geography.

Nine hundred and seventy-three Ontario Secondary school students provided detailed information on their programs. In the Ontario secondary school credit system, the student selects program subjects from four broad classifications: Communications, Arts, Pure and Applied Sciences, and Social and Environmental Studies. In the typical secondary school, the minimum number of credits (usually 1 credit = 1 subject) to be taken in Grades 9 and 10 (or years 1 and 2, respectively) is eight and most are compulsory; e.g., English, Physical and Health Education, Mathematics, Science, History or Geography. In Grades 11 and 12 (i.e., years 3 and 4) the minimum is usually seven, with English the only compulsory subject but other credits requiring certain prerequisites having to be chosen from specified grade levels. In Grade 13 (i.e., year 5) usually 6 credits minimum is suggested and there are no compulsory subjects. Of course, from grade 11 on, students are encouraged to choose their programs with requirements of any post-secondary education they might be planning in mind. There is considerable onus on each school principal and his/her staff to ultimately set the curriculum format.

Using the program information provided by the 973 students, seven categories (or types) of programs were inductively formed described as follows:

Arts and Science Advanced — a program consisting of English, French, Mathematics, Science, History or Geography, one of Physics, Chemistry or Biology, and one other subject, e.g., Music or Art — all at the advanced level of difficulty — plus general Physical and Health education.

Technical Advanced — a program consisting of English, Mathematics, Science, Auto Mechanics, Drafting, Electricity, Machine Shop, Woodwork and Metal Work (the latter six together worth 3 credits) at the advanced level of difficulty, plus general French and Physical Health Education.

Arts & Science Mixture (of Advanced and General) — a program consisting of English, Science and one other subject, e.g., Music or Art, at the advanced level of difficulty, plus general French, History or Geography, Mathematics, one of Physics, Chemistry or Biology, and Physical and Health Education.

Technical Mixture — a program consisting of English, Auto Mechanics, Drafting, Electricity, Machine Shop, Woodwork and Metalwork (the latter six together worth 3 credits) at the advanced level of difficulty, plus general French, Mathematics, Science, and Physical and Health Education.

Arts & Science — a program consisting of the following general level subjects — English, French, Mathematics, Science. History or Geography, one of Physics, Chemistry or Biology, and one other subject, e.g., Music or Art, and Physical and Health Education.

Basic — a program consisting of general level French, Science, History or Geography, Physical and Health Education, and two (together worth one credit) of Auto Mechanics, Drafting, Electricity, Machine Shop, Woodwork or Metalwork.

Each of the seven types represents a group of school programs which were indicated by the sample subjects, with minor variations in subjects from those of the group "type" for many in the group. Two main dimensions inherent in the seven types are stream (Arts and Science, Technical or Remedial) and subject level of difficulty [Advanced (incorporates "Enriched" level), General or Basic]. In constructing the types, certain similarities were created; e.g., each type consists of eight credits, French is common to all types, in order to clearly reveal the two main dimensions; moreover, grade 13 subjects specifically were omitted from the types to avoid confounding. The difficulty of various high school student programs as perceived by practicing Ontario educators was then sought. With permission from the six professors concerned, the authors sampled forty one educational administration summer school students at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. The sample subjects represented a variety of regular educational roles — teacher, department head, vice-principal, principal, consultant, college department chairmen, superintendent, librarian, etc. Their experience in education ranged from 3-28 years with approximately 50% of them having over 10 years experience. To each was given an exercise in a package called "A Credit System Exercise." In words, the rankings produced the following:

first — Arts and Science Advanced
second — Technical Advanced
third — Arts and Science Mixture
fourth — Technical Mixture
fifth — Arts & Science General
sixth — Technical General
seventh — Basic

Note that it is the majority view of the sample subjects which is the basis for the empirical version of the relative difficulty of curricula. Other information gleaned from the respondents was that the majority of them had taken an Arts and Science Advanced or Arts and Science General high school program themselves, and most interpreted the term "difficult" as equivalent to "academic". (However, a few respondents said that, generally, they would rank technical programs lower than they did, if "academic" instead of "difficult" had been the basis for ranking.)

Discussion of the Ranking

Looking across the resultant rankings of the seven program types, several things are apparent. Programs consisting of the majority of advanced level courses were considered more difficult than programs consisting of a mixture of advanced and general level courses, which in turn were considered more difficult than general level course programs. Further, the Arts and Science stream was considered more difficult than the Technical stream. Overall, these priorities are the ones which Ontario educators have traditionally had. As a group, the sample subjects were very sure about where the Arts and Science advanced and basic types should be (first and last respectively). However, deciding where to rank the technical advanced, Arts and Science mixture, and Technical mixture program was more difficult. Arts and Science mixture came very close to being tied with Technical advanced for the second rank position. Technical mixture was overall ranked fourth, but had been placed third and fifth by many.

It would appear that many respondents used a "trading off" procedure, especially in making decisions about the technical advanced, arts and science and technical mixture program. Referring back to the courses which actually constituted the technical advanced and arts and science mixture programs — the two programs which almost tied for a rank position — helps define one of the key tradeoffs. Basically, it would appear that many sample subjects give precedence to "majority of advanced level technical courses" over "a majority of general level arts and science courses". We would say that the practitioner's bias with respect to the relative difficulty of an arts and science and a technical program generally, was tested to a maximum in this case; the summary results show how close the decision was. Regardless of such discussion of the survey findings, the determining of the rank order of program types would have involved, at least, a complex interplay of stream, level of difficulty, and essence of credit preferences. The sample subjects provide more insight into what relative difficulty of school programs means to educational practitioners:

"While the difficulty of subject areas is relative to each individual I believe that the theoretical nature of subject areas in the arts and sciences is more difficult than the practical nature of work in the technical areas."

"My bias is that (1) an academic subject properly taught should demand mental processes at a level higher than demanded for a technical subject well taught, e.g., from Bloom's Taxonomy: Evaluation and Synthesis (top) versus Analysis; (2) there should be no significant difference in 'difficulty' between levels of instruction if the relative norm is accepted; i.e., a level of difficulty congruent with the student's ability; and (3) objectively speaking, i.e., not in relation to any specific group of students, I believe Advanced/Enriched is more difficult; as I understand, such a course should try to achieve more sophistication in the subject matter at hand."

"It is unfair to judge all courses by 'difficulty,' i.e., prospects of passing/failing, since some course choices are results of interest, motivation and aptitude as opposed to choices which reflect vocational or educational necessities such as requirements for post-secondary education."

"It is difficult to assess how difficult a student finds a particular program; such varies with his aptitude. Most technical subjects are geared to 'average' ability students. In my experience it is very hard to find technical courses geared to students with high technical ability, because usually low ability students are directed to such courses in great numbers."

These comments indicate various factors which the educational practitioners feel bear on classifying school programs as to difficulty-some are primarily related to the student, some to the teacher, and some to the specific school subjects.

Conclusion

In recent years, there has been strong interest in secondary school curricula. Educators in a variety of roles have been investigating the ways and means of school programs, recognizing the important implications of these for such things as a students grades, school time commitment, class peer group structure, self concept and future educational plans, and the general societal status and financial success that the student will eventually attain. (Interesting discussion on this latter point may be found in Alexander and McDill, 1976; Rosenbaum, 1975; and Williams, 1972.) It is not within the scope of this article to have detailed discussion on these implications; however, the survey results recorded do suggest some relevant ideas. For example, the view of Arts and Science programs and Advanced Level credits as generally more difficult, together with points found in the respondent comments (e.g., . . . theoretical nature of subject areas of Arts and Science is more difficult . . .), suggests that Ontario practitioners believe that school programs do have a relative rank ordering; further, they do not feel that it is inappropriate to do such a ranking under the credit system philosophy. The view of ranking of years ago seems still to hold. If this is true, then most likely, many school teachers and administrators still think in terms of "the good students" and "the poor students" in their school. Rosenthal and Jacobsen (1968) point up the potential danger of "the self fulfilling prophecy" syndrome where such an educator mental set abounds. In subtle or not-to-subtle ways, such an educator conveys to "the poor student" that he/she is just that; this results in the student not doing well as the educator and student act out in various ways the shared belief that the student is poor. But let us not extrapolate the survey results too much. The Rosenthal and Jacobsen idea is presented merely as a possibility and any inferring from the result is limited by characteristics of the sample. Overall, the results are useful for the reader to compare to his/her own views.

We have not discussed other interesting implications surrounding the survey. For example, the catchy titles given to credits in some schools are stories all in themselves; e.g., "Explorations in Mathematics" and "Feast and Famine" for Mathematics and Home Economics, respectively; some school systems not offering any credits at the enriched level of difficulty because the central office administrators wish to play down elitism within their system; and the extent of students selecting credits from behind or ahead of their current year. The survey results indicate that Ontario educators still think of secondary school programs in relative difficulty despite a credit system that implies downplaying such. It would appear the credit system has provided the benefit of more individual choice in programming, but has not stopped "labeling" of whole programs. Hopefully there will be considerably more written expression on the many aspects of the Ontario secondary school curriculum which is still very much in motion.

Chapter 8

School Administrators Discuss Students:

An Interview with Principals Ed Enns and Eleanor Rourke

Thom: What differences have you observed between students of the late '60s and early '70s and those of today?

Rourke: One thing we notice in the elementary school today is that children believe they should be part of the education process. They believe they should be heard. They seem to have a greater faith in themselves than you or I had when we went to elementary school.

Thom: Do students of today have a better self-concept than those of a generation ago?

Rourke: I think they do have a better self-concept because they have been given more opportunities to try things and to prove to themselves that they are academically capable. We work very hard at planning programs and putting children in situations where they can excel. This tends to give them a better feeling about themselves.

Thom: Ed, what about the secondary level?

Enns: Kids in high school now are different from one particular block of kids in the '60s who wanted to reform the world, to break down institutions and school patterns. Today they are terribly practical. They are aiming at a job, a profession. They are not there to tear down the values of the school or of their parents, which amazes me because it has not always been that way.

Thom: Generally, do secondary students aspire to go on to college or university?

Enns: Kids still think of getting a college degree, definitely, but they have to see it as being practical. They have to see the strong possibility of a job afterward. Many students have Saturday or evening jobs and some jobs even infringe on school hours.

Thom: This practical orientation must tie into the notion of the "basics." Can you honestly say, Eleanor, that in elementary schools, the students are getting good basic development?

Rourke: I don't think we were ever far away from the "basics." But society has changed so much we would be wrong to try to recapture the education you and I had. I went to a country school for grades 1 to 10. A textbook was put in front of us and we could either read it or we couldn't; that was all there was to it. Those of us fortunate enough to be able to read were fine, but the children whose first language was not English or who had trouble reading just could not cope with that one textbook. In a typical elementary classroom today, there are many different programs tailored to suit many different children's needs.

Enns: I think we have added a dimension to the basics, and that is oral communication. Kids don't just have to read, write, and work with numbers, they have to be able to communicate orally.
Kids today who supposedly are not able to read could very easily read the stuff we expected them to read 15 years ago. What we expect from them now is infinitely more complex, and some students get bogged down.

Thom: Just 25 years ago, there were fewer youngsters attending high school and completing their education. You would think that standards would have to come down because we're catering to a larger proportion of society's youth.

Enns: I don't feel that standards have gone down. We're teaching some things in elementary school that I learned in second-year university. Sometimes before we can fully adapt these programs, they appear awkward and too technical. But kids have a wide choice; they know the areas in which they function well and tend to aim for those programs (I'm talking about senior high school, now). They don't have to be good at everything.

Thom: Do you feel there have been too many changes in recent years with regard to textbooks and the curricula generally?

Rourke: I don't think there has been too much change there, and I think that most of it has been very positive. There has been a great change in the total climate of the school; the increase in the change in the programming of the school to meet the needs of each child. I don't think we have gone too fast. If anything, education tends to be conservative. We check and double-check everything we do because we know student lives are very precious, and if we make a mistake, we don't suffer the consequences, the children do.

Thom: In recent years, every province has revised and consolidated legislation to cater to student's rights and to lay out the responsibilities not just of administrators and teachers, but of students and parents as well. What are some of the general issues with regard to students' rights? You've mentioned that students feel more a sense of ownership of their school.

Rourke: Probably the key issue for students' rights is the right of the student to have an education that fits his or her own individual style and capabilities. If we are providing that kind of education, it will be reflected in the way students feel about their education. Many of the students' rights discussed across Canada did not hit us here in the Prairies. We don't have large ghetto situations so our schools tend to be uniformly good (perhaps there's a slight bias here). We don't have pocket ghettos where we need policemen patrolling our school halls. Students' rights related to this problem were never in jeopardy. The student's rights to express their own opinions, to say what they believe, we've always taken into consideration, but I think we are listening more carefully now than we did before. And I see that as positive.

Enns: Students want us to discuss with them how decisions are made about course offerings and credits needed. They want to have things justified to them; then they are perfectly happy and feel this sense of ownership. We try to open up decision making to the students so that they can have input. And that increases their pride in what they have achieved. It all relates to their practical approach, which I think Eleanor was getting at too, in that students want to know where they are going.

Thom: What channels do students have for input into decision making?

Enns: In my school, casualness is the channel. The kids walk into the office at any time, and I discuss anything with them. I make a great point of saying, especially at the beginning of the year when we have new students, that there are no rules or decisions not open to discussion. After discussion, we may change rules, we may modify them, but the kids always walk out with a sense of confidence that they are listened to and have input. I think students have a right to have input into what is happening in school.

Thom: How able are elementary students, in particular, to know what kind of program best suits their needs and interests?

Rourke: We don't let elementary students decide on their total program; they're not mature enough for that. However, we're working hard at giving them more options. For instance, many teachers have independent study projects whereby they set up a contract arrangement with a student or group of students to study a particular topic in depth. Typically, the students want to do research projects on topics about which the whole family is enthusiastic, and typically parents get involved in the support of these projects.

Enns: Sometimes, of course, we feel that students make poor choices and we try to guide them into what we feel are right ones. The main objective is not to close any doors, to select their courses so that they don't cut themselves off from something. Sometimes we get into political areas here. For example, a few years ago a second language was popular. Now, it doesn't matter what that second language is, it is not a popular option. But kids do know, generally, what sorts of things they're aiming for and that determines their choice.

Part 2

Book Reviews

Chapter 1

The Management of Educational Institutions:

Theory, Research and Consultancy

H.L. Gray, ed. London, England: Falmer Press Ltd., 1982. 294 pages

This book provides a particular point of view on contemporary educational administration. Overall it is valuable, yet some readers will be disappointed with the omission of particular topics and particular authors. The real test of a book with such a title is how well it addresses the world of the practitioner.

Immediately, and unfortunately, some confusion might arise from this book's title — it is unclear whether the subtitle means "Theory Research", or "Theory, Research". The reader, judging from the contents, might think that some concept of "theory research" is being dealt with. However, the back cover indicates that there is indeed a comma between "theory" and "research".

An introduction and thirteen chapters comprise the book. The authors represent a nice cross–sectiion of countries, including the U.K., Australia, U.S.A., and Canada. Some are quite well-known educational administration people (L.E. Watson, D.H.Layton, R.A.Schmuck, C. Brooklyn Derr, and Tom Bone) and others are becoming better known (R.I.Simon, G.Lyons, M.M.Milstein, and W.Mulford). M.Fullan is well known as an educational sociologist and in recent years has been writing in the organization/administration area. The rest of the contributors (P.C.Webb, T.J.DeLong, I.L.Mangham, H.Heller, and the book's editor H.L.Gray) are relative newcomers to the management of education literature.

With respect to the order of the articles, there does not appear to be any particular scheme except that the Watson and Gray pieces at the start and the Bone article at the finish seem to fit there logically. All articles are relatively short and very readable. Many of the contributions have an organization development or a phenomenological flavour.

The first impression of this text is that some half of the articles are very valuable for recent, relevant and practical ideas and the others are somewhat esoteric and over-sophisticated to be in a book with this title. However, after reading the contents carefully, many will decide that it is this mix of items that gives a richness to the text.

Len Watson's article is very practical and pragmatic. The essence of his piece is to describe the setting of educational situations as comprising seven overlapping systems. After outlining this framework, he then presents examples of how in a "real" situation concepts and questions from the various systems interrelate to help address a pressing issue. The model is quite useful to the practitioner in dissecting problems before solution.

Gray's article is quite good (his introduction to the book I felt was quite weak, with too much exaggeration of the importance of sorting out administrative theories, sensationalization, and too many broad generalizations). He cleverly and validly reviews the changing perspectives on organization theory, then concentrates on the phenomenological approach - which sees organizations as essentially personally and individually constructed artifacts. Gray's key contribution is to present twelve propositions which indicate how a subjective theory like phenomenology can be applied in practice and improve the human condition.

The Webb and Lyons article and the Heller article, both address the actual job of the educational administrator. The former is the only research account in the book. It reports work into the managerial behaviour of senior staff in large secondary comprehensive schools in the U.K. and follows the Mintzberg diary approach. The suggestion was that managerial behavior and activities are similar in schools to what they seem to be in other employment sectors. In the Heller piece, the experience of applying an extended program of management training for education in one U.K. LEA is described; the emphasis was one of Organization Development, and the author is very honest in admitting that the program was not very successful. Heller's article is useful in providing an overview of good literature and instrumentation concerning management training, e.g., the article "Ten Good Schools", 1977 (p.225) and the DION [Diagnosis of Individual and Organizational Needs] Handbook, 1980 (p.235).

Tom Bone's article provides another practical perspective. He proposes many straightforward guidelines for managing institutions in a period of contraction. He suggests that management skills are not different in contraction and expansion, but are essentially the same; the problem is that educational institutions were not managed well in good times, thus management suffers in declining times, and the required skills require help and training.

In the article by Derr and DeLong, an idea appearing in several of the book's chapters, e.g., Webb and Lyons, p. 107, is elaborated - schools learning management ideas from other sectors of society such as business. The authors feel that it is extremely difficult to apply business management training for principals, restructuring school organizations, improved management information systems and long range planning would be useful for schools, and admit that schools are currently struggling with many of the social, political, and economic problems other areas will inevitably encounter. Thus, the 1980s may be the decade for schools to point the way for businesses (p.135).

Donald Layton offers a valuable piece on the study of the politics of education. He provides good definitions, overviews key selected issues such as parent and community involvement in education, and presents future directions for administrative practice, administrative training, for policy makers and for research. In his conclusion, the author suggest trans-national research as an important fruitful area (p.123).

A key group of articles for their O.D. emphasis are those by Schmuck, Milstein, Mulford and Fullan. Schmuck gives an important account of the history, development and current state of affairs of O.D. from the United States; Mulford describes the situation in Australia. Schmuck goes on to describe an international conference held in New York City in 1980, whose objective was to generate a research agenda on O.D. in schools, and concludes his chapter with discussion of the formation of an international O.D. clearinghouse and network. Milstein's piece addresses the specific O.D. issue of effective ways to train internal change agents. His basis is an account of a training and consultancy program based on O.D. principles which is offered at the State University of New York (SUNY) at Buffalo and an application in a public school district. The author emphasizes that internal change agents can contribute meaningfully to implementation of innovations in schools. Mulford discusses some of the different roles consultants can take when working with systems. He provides a thorough example on consultation for educational innovations.The basis is mainly examples from Canada and the United States. There are four main sections: what is implementation; what factors affect success or failure; principles and people in implementation; and reflections on implementation research. His hope is for a true institutional dynamism rather than a cosmetic change in appearances.

The Mangham and the Simon articles are two of the more esoteric in the collection. Some readers will find the former piece cute and creative but it also seems somewhat remote and absurd in parts. There appears to be the premise that there are no adequate theories of organization (which is an absurd statement). Yet one can accept the idea (earlier presented by T.B.Greenfield from Canada) that to really understand organizations, we must seek to understand how people give meaning to them and to appreciate the subjectivity of that experience. In brief, Mangham's argument is that the metaphor which compares social life to drama serves to illuminate elements of behaviour in institutions of higher education that other metaphors cannot reach. Simon's article is on mysticism, management and Marx - a curious theme. His chapter illustrates how management theory ideas are being developed in order to deepen an understanding of organizational processes. The piece will appeal to the growing number of phenomenologists and critical theorists in the educational administration culture, yet the hard-line practitioner will find it remote, obscure and overanalytical of seemingly straightforward behaviour in education; what is all this about a dialectic or "problematic" process?

Which brings us back to the earlier direct question - "how well does the book address the world of the practitioner?" The answer is that it does so only slightly. Realistically, the on-the-job administrator attracted to the book's title would find just a few items of work use. Frameworks of understanding the administrator's role and the school's place in society such as provided by Watson, Webb and Lyons, and Heller are quite relevant. Also, Bone's article on managing in an era of decline is useful. Perhaps the Schmuck and the other articles on Organization Development would be of interest - it depends on how much prior exposure on the part of the reader, for without actually doing O.D., most people seem to have difficulty in grasping its meaning and power. In general, the rest of the book's chapters will seem rather theoretical, philosophical, technical, and remote to be of use to the practitioner.

A strength of the book is that it does have an international/comparative and interdisciplinary flavour. Like any academic text, its contents represent the author's general "point of view". In this case the contents do give us a broad overview of many of the aspects of a contemporary definition of educational management. And it is encouraging to see that the unity and coherence of these aspects are improving.

Excellent books on the management of education are required in the future. The activity of educational administration is such a critically important one in our society. These future books must go beyond this one by Gray. Other important topics need to be addressed -- educational law, finance of education, executive stress, management information systems, futures, and identification, recruitment, and grooming of educational administrators, for example. Also, a future book should recognize that thinking on management of education has matured to a point where it is inappropriate to make statements such as found in Gray as "[t]he truth is that there are no adequate theories of organization" (p.45). Such statements seem ridiculous and sensational.

We should expect profound books in the future, future-looking and with less emphasis on jargon and more on the basic concept of leadership itself. There are "universal commons" when discussing management of education techniques in the 1980s and these should be highlighted. Gray's *The Management of Educational Institutions: Theory, Research, and Consultancy* is a valuable beginning.

Chapter 2

Educational Administration:
The Developing Decades

Luvern L. Cunningham, Walter G. Hack, and Raphael O. Nystrand (eds.) Berkeley, California; McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1977. 445 pages

Linking theory and practice of educational administration is always of value, and this book does that. Its chapters were originally presented as papers at a conference entitled "Educational Administration Twenty Years Later: 1954-1974" held in 1975 at the Ohio State University in honour of Roald F. Campbell. Professor Campbell is recognized as having made outstanding contributions to the discipline of educational administration. Ohio State was a meaningful choice of site, in that it is there that the pioneer studies of leadership were conducted.

The conference, sponsored jointly by the University Council for Educational Administration and the Academic Faculty of Educational Administration at Ohio State, brought together individuals from across Canada and the United States to assess developments in the knowledge and practice of educational administration during the 1954-74 period and to identify directions for leadership, preparation and research for the discipline in the years ahead. Many who developed the educational administration literature from the 1950's at Ohio and the University of Chicago were there.

This book, resulting from the proceedings, covers pertinent topics such as educational administration and the courts, changing roles of educational administrators, future issues to confront practitioners, and preparatory programs in educational administration. Also, there are articles on history, leadership and research per se. Interestingly, and quite appropriately, the book concludes with an article by a layperson, Mrs. Virla R. Krotz. In "Emerging Educational Leadership - A Citizen's Perspective" she beseeches administrators to remember the real purposes of their activities - quality education for students and the improvement of the social order. Noting the crisis of public confidence in the schools, she calls for a total commitment to excellence by administrators.

Among other contributors to the book are Jacob W. Getzels (of the Getzels-Guba idiographic and nomothetic model), Donald A. Erickson of Simon Fraser University, B.C., Edwin M. Bridges of Stanford, W.W. Charters, Jr. of University of Oregon, Keith Goldhammer of Michigan State, Andrew E.Hayes of the University of North Carolina at Wilmington, Daniel E. Griffiths, Andrew W. Halpin, and Professor Campbell himself. Dr. Erickson's contribution, Section 7 of Part II, "An Overdue Paradigm Shift in Educational Administration, or, How Can We Get That Idiot Off The Freeway?" was chosen by the Canadian Association for the Study of Educational Administration (CASEA)/Association Canadienne pur l'Etude de L'Administration Scolaire (ACEAS) for widespread distribution to administrators across Canada this year. His message is that there is a need for a profound shift in educational administration research, from studying structure and process in their own right, with little regard for the specific setting of education, to using casual models of school effects with a view to education policy development. He urges a two-pronged approach to research - the first, the discovery of the relationship between organizational phenomena and goal achievement; the second, the explanation of that organizational phenomena.

Following the past, present, future format, the book does bring considerable structure and definition to the educational administration discipline at this time. How young the discipline is from the point of view of development of theory is pointed up by the fact that many of the original theorists are still alive (e.g., Griffiths, Getzels). Besides, they form a small enough group to know one another and to meet periodically as they did for Campbell's tribute. The practice of educational administration generally involves planning, communicating, supervising and evaluating in serving a variety of interest groups - pupils, staff, trustees, peers, parents and general community. The study of educational administration involves an examination of these things which the practitioner does, but also addresses a broader category of topics, such as research methodologies, identification and preparation of educational administrators, futures, and the international development of educational administration. *Educational*

Administration: The Developing Decades covers these elements of practice and theory.

There are several important messages in the book. Accepting accountability, truly leading personnel, creating humanistic climates in school systems and developing good public relations with community are mentioned throughout the chapters. Documented is the role of social pressure in the politicization of the school and the consequent diminution of administrative autonomy since the mid 1950s. David Tyack and Robert Cummings of Stanford University, in Section 4, describe how, prior to 1954, the social environment permitted the depoliticization of the schools and the parallel development of the administrative role as a profession. However, as Keith Goldhammer described in Section 8, there has emerged an aggressively pluralistic society demanding diversified programs, legal and financial restraints limiting the discretionary power of administrators, professional associations assuming unprecedented control in the decision-making process, and declining enrollments. Several of the authors contend that personal courage and integrity are critical to administrative role performance in these times.

Andrew Halpin and Andrew Hayes and Jacob Getzels, in their presentations, deplore the decline of the theory (social system) movement which promised so much in 1954. Halpin and Hayes condemn the action research to which professionals turned (p. 227) and Getzels repudiates the recent enthusiasm for accountability in education and management by objectives (viewing them as forms of the old efficiency cult). Daniel Griffiths terms present theories for educational administration "inadequate" and calls for new conceptualizations which take into account organizational and individual goals (p. 408).

Many of the contributors felt that future educational administration research should be more field/practice oriented and that the researchers should do more of building from each other's work. Specifically, Erickson feels that there should be follow-up studies on the extra curriculum as a powerful aspect of achieving school goals (p. 126); Charters supports there being more replication of significant educational administration research (p. 371). Management by objectives trends, now obvious in practice, are praised for their effectiveness by some. Generally, the messages speak to new developments in research and practice providing relevant answers for practitioners.

The book does leave the reader with some basic contradictions and frustrations. For instance, much of the discussion is too generalized to be useful to the practicing administrator who is trying to solve a problem "today" or even "yesterday". More practitioners as contributors might have been useful. Also, Erickson (p. 137) calls for a sweeping reassessment of training programs in a tone implying that training of educational administrators has been "all wrong" for years; this is unfair, as many individuals in Canadian and American settings, to their credit, have put immense time and energy into producing very acceptable programs. Edwin Bridges, in "The Nature of Leadership", criticizes the current training programs, but in a more rational manner; he makes some good points, like the fact that there is a disparity between the slow rhythms and reinforcement of subordinate behaviours in graduate school activity and the hectic pace and need to take charge in school administration. Robin Farquhar, in "Preparatory Programs in Educational Administration, 1954-1974", contrasts with Erickson and Bridges in that he emphasizes positive aspects of recent developments in the preparation of educational leaders. Halpin and Hayes and Glenn L. Immegart point out important factors which impact on the quality of educational and administration programs - student selection methods, reliance on external funds, maintenance of standards, research-oriented faculty, the nature of collegial relationships and allocative mechanisms. Those developing the programs should look at all the arguments. One frustrating thing is that Griffiths, and others in the book, talk of the need for educational administrators to build the morale of those whom they direct; yet, it seems that many administrators continue to follow practices which are not conducive to such morale building (like introducing increasingly restrictive regulations and not offering much job security to new recruits). Putting the system before individuals is still very prevalent. Overall, the book is interesting and enjoyable. Its main flavour is historical and philosophical. One senses great wisdom gained from experience in many of the contributors and that there are many clear thinkers at the top of the system. Above all, the reader gets the point that educational administration is not easy, that it is extremely demanding and challenging. Professor Campbell remarks, ". . . the field of educational administration can no longer chase a single rainbow. Achievement of tasks, though important, is not enough. Human relations, though crucial, are not all-encompassing." Campbell's vision of practitioners, and researchers together dealing with the phenomena surrounding the establishment, operation, and evaluation of educational institutions points the direction for exciting new developments.

Chapter 3

Managing in Turbulent Times

Peter F. Drucker. New York,N.Y.: Harper and Row, 1980. 239 pages.

Peter Drucker has been described as 'the founding father of the discipline of management'. He is certainly no stranger to readers of organization and administration literature. In this, his sixteenth book in forty-one years, he seems to have something for everyone.

To begin, Professor Drucker presents a quotation from his much earlier book, *Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices* (1974, p. 10).

> 'Rarely, if ever, has a new basic institution, a new leading group, a new central function, emerged as fast as has management since the turn of the century. Rarely in human history has a new institution proven indispensable so quickly. Even less often has a new institution arrived with so little opposition, so little disturbance, so little controversy.' (p. 225)

Then, to conclude this new book, he rewrites the quote to suit the current management environment:

> 'Rarely has a new social institution, a new social function, emerged as fast as management in this century. Rarely, if ever, has it become indispensable so fast. But rarely also has a new institution, a new leadership group, faced as demanding, as challenging, as exciting a test as the one that managing in turbulent times now poses to the managements of businesses and non-business public service institutions alike.' (p. 231)

Drucker explains that, now, management is being stridently attacked by a variety of interest groups. At some time during the last ten years we moved into a condition of turbulence, of rapid innovation and fast and radical structural shifts.

In essence, *Managing in Turbulent Times* attempts to take the thoughts of those in charge of organizations to heights formerly unattained. Dr Drucker sees this as necessary; society is entering a new era, with new trends, new markets, new principles, new technologies and institutions. The fact that so many novel things are appearing concomitantly and in such rapid succession is what necessitates enlightened approaches.

The book contains a vast amount of information and analysis. Besides a discussion of the traditional concepts, such as liquidity, productivities, and the costs of the future (Drucker's 'fundamentals' of survival and success), and of inflation, profit, growth, strategies, markets, and so on, there appear some bright new ideas of 'the knowledge worker', 'the sea-change' (from Shakespeare), the 'double-headed monster', 'the employe society', and 'labour forces'. Before the book concludes, Drucker has fully described these latter concepts and their implications for effective managing, often drawing from the theories of Marx, Keynes, Taylor, Friedman, and Adam Smith.

Initially, the interdisciplinary flavour and comprehensiveness of the book seem to overwhelm the reader. But, on closer examination, several important central themes appear. The chapter format is: Introduction; Managing the Fundamentals; Managing for Tomorrow; Managing the Sea-Change: The New Population Structure and the New Population Dynamics; Managing in Turbulent Environments; and Conclusion: The Challenge to Management. Drucker begins slowly and generally cautions against managing from the certainties of yesterday. He points out that we now have an 'employe society' whereby in developed countries between 85 and 90 per cent of the economy's product is paid out in the form of wages and salaries. Further, the 'knowledge worker' – trained for a profession – is increasingly being underutilized. This has produced a situation, in classical economic theory terms, of 'property holders without power' and 'knowledge experts without responsibility', 'function without status'. Besides, with shifting population distributions producing a majority of younger, educated people but few professional job vacancies and other opportunities, enterprises are becoming 'double-headed monsters' which depend for their performance on professionals who are dedicated to their discipline rather than to the institution. Add to all this a growing heterogeneity with respect to expectations, needs, and characteristics within the labour force (actually we have labour forces), thrusts to end a mandatory retirement age, and an increasingly integrated world economy, and we indeed have turbulent times that managers have to learn to manage.

The new realities are discussed in detail. Dr Drucker is then concerned with actions and decisions on the part of managers. He provides many practical suggestions. Improving the productivity of all resources is the single most important step toward calming the turbulence. Resources need to be committed to actual and potential results. The author suggests having two budgets: an operational budget for the things that are already being done (which should be 'satisficed'), and an opportunities budget for proposed new and different ventures (which should be 'optimized').

Four key resources have to be managed consistently, systematically, and conscientiously: capital, crucial physical assets, time, and knowledge. Drucker suggests that managers must work 'smarter' rather than just 'harder', and that their compensation needs to be based on economic reality rather than on reported 'profits'. He several times returns to the notion that assignment control is the key to the productivity of the knowledge worker – those highly qualified people who are potentially most productive but also most expensive. Further, the author stresses that managers of tomorrow will have to learn to cope with many new developments in communications, such as the ability to substitute electronic transmission of graphics for the shipping of heavy paper.

A valuable aspect of this book is the informed comparisons of countries around the world. Many times Japan's approach of 'lifetime employment' is referred to, and this is contrasted with the Western approach of unemployment insurance and mandatory retirement. Then the author is able to consider various ways of achieving desired psychological security in workers. He sees the fair approach to be redundancy planning in the form of a co-operative venture between management and employees. In Chapter 4, the cross-cultural comparisons are broadened to a discussion of the realities and managerial implications of an integrated world economy and a splintered world polity. Earlier, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Singapore, and culturally-Chinese South Korea – 'almost developed countries' – were applauded for their insight in giving first priority to the creation of jobs in manufacturing for exports. 'Hong Kong in particular has done an outstanding job,' says Drucker with respect to creating *fully productive* jobs (p. 136)

Managing in Turbulent Times, however, does appear to have some weaknesses. At the beginning and the end of the book, especially, the discussion often seems so general and broad as to be of little specific use to a manager concerned with action. The following excerpt serves as an example: 'Managers will find increasingly that in turbulent times they have to be leaders and integrators in a pluralist society, in addition to managing their institutions for performance' (p. 221). Related to this is the author's tendency to take an overly-mechanistic, money view towards the ideas in the turbulent society which he addresses. Even though Drucker refers to people – those being managed – several times, the reader might feel that the author does not emphasize enough what a key factor people are in the solutions of turbulence. He comments that many young, well-educated, ambitious persons will become frustrated by their inability to break into saturated career markets in the next ten years. His particular orientation seems to stifle creative thinking along the lines that these young people might decide to start their own businesses, or retrain, or pursue athletic careers as alternatives. Also, the stress involved in contemporary career positions which is causing early retirements and vacancies through resignation is not mentioned.

What is there in this book specifically for managers of education or educational administrators? Several important notions. First, in many sections Drucker describes the need for commitment, vision, integrity, statesmanship and leadership from managers in these times. Secondly, the author discusses particular forward-looking business practices such as production-sharing (p. 99), increased public relations (p. 228), carefully controlling the assignment of resources (p. 42), and employing zero-based concepts (p. 44). Educational administrators should follow this advice; in education, production-sharing could be thought of in terms of the schools co-operating with outside-school agencies such as art galleries, museums, and recreation departments, in the educating of students. Also, Drucker's comments concerning many highly educated young people in developed countries not being able to find relevant jobs, the need for second careers, and the need for more young professionals and more jobs in less-developed countries, imply to educational administrators a need to monitor curriculum and student numbers, to intensify continuing education programmes, and to encourage international exchanges of young people. University-level educational administrators will find the author's analysis of the 'double-headed monster', the employee/managerial ambivalence of the militant unions of university professors, and the failure of university faculty to perform community functions of value and comparative interest with respect to their own settings. Lastly, it is worthwhile for administrators at all levels of the educational system to reflect on the muscle, fat, and cancer in organizations of which Drucker speaks.

Overall, *Management in Turbulent Times* (MTT) is valuable reading. Dr Drucker's discussion is interdisciplinary and cross-cultural. He consolidates complex thinking about the management world in a short space and in a very readable form. In the final analysis, he is encouragng managers to have hope, to view turbulence as a situation of opportunity, to manage for change, to be self-confident, and definitely to be action-oriented.

Translating much of what is said, one could very well come up with the idea that effective leaders of the future must have a 'low tolerance for nonsense' and apply a great deal of common-sense in dealing with 'their people'. Some of the harder, specific decisions, which Drucker really only alludes to, pertain to the outright releasing of incompetent staff for the betterment of the organization, keeping the size of one's organization manageable, and recognizing dangerous 'executive stress' levels. Perhaps these will be topics in one of his future works.

Whether or not managers can discard dysfunctional shibboleths which have fed their egos for decades, or whether soon structurally 'we will see organizations as concentric, overlapping, co-ordinated rings, rather than as pyramids', or whether MTT will become as famous an acronym as MBO, all remain to be seen. What we do know is that creative, salient thinking about new directions for managing in new times is alive and well.

Chapter 4

The Leader:

A New Face for American Management

Michael Maccoby. New York, N.Y.: Simon and Schuster, 1981. 284 pages.

An updated discussion on leadership is long overdue and Maccoby's book provides this. Views of leaders as determined by traits, by environment, by a combination of both, by the nature of those being led, and by personal maturity have been presented over the years but Maccoby indicates the new complexities for the contemporary situation.

Overall the book is excellent. It has two theses: (1) that a new model of leadership is needed to bring out the best, not only in a new social character, but also in the older social characters that co-exist with it (p. 17), and (2) that in an organizational society good leadership at the top is not enough but rather interdependent teams at different levels need leaders (p. 21). A unique trait of the book is a profoundness of ideas throughout.

The discussion progresses through ten chapters: Leadership and the Work Ethic; Leadership for a New Social Character; Six Leaders; a Foreman; A Union Leader; A Plant Manager; A Chief Executive Officer; An Assistant Secretary; A Congressman; and The Development of Leadership. It concludes with an Appendix and Notes. The book is based in large part upon dialogues with leaders who are trying to make business and government more humane and effective. Maccoby is a psychiatrist which results in considerable social-psychological flavour in his presentation. In his first chapter he explains how success in leadership is tied to values rooted in social character, and how the American social character has been expressed historically in four different work ethics: the Protestant or Puritan ethic, the craft ethic, the entrepreneurial ethic, and the career ethic. Each produced a different model of leadership which fit the social character of the age. Work has a strong influence on social character because the family and educational systems respond to the exigencies of the work place — families emphasize and reinforce values, behaviour, and attitudes in their children that they believe will lead to success; educational institutions justify curricula firstly in terms of preparing people for successful careers. Mention is made of four character types of successful leaders found in large corporations — which appeared in Maccoby's earlier book *The Gamesman:* the craftsman, the jungle fighter, the company man, and the gamesman. Chapter One provides a very neat history.

Chapter Two examines leadership as influenced by three interweaving currents which have been transforming the national character since the craft and entrepreneurial eras — technology, the movement from a rural, craft-based society to a semi-urban, organizational society with new definitions of work, and the challenge to paternal authority. The new social character which is evolving is more oriented to self than to craft, enterprise or career. What has emerged is the self-oriented character which has both positive and negative aspects. For example, some believe that this character is so narcissistic that it will resist even ideal leadership. Maccoby provides a detailed discussion (p. 50). The chapter concludes with a discussion of the type of leader who will bring out the best in the self-oriented character and thus in contemporary work situations. Competent and caring leadership and a model that expresses an ethic of self-development is required at all levels.

Chapters Four to Nine describe six new-style leaders in the United States and Western Europe, as close as the author could find to a model that meets the leadership needs of a new social character. In Chapter Three the research design for studying these leaders is described. The leaders are examined in the context of the local work place, as well as that of broader historical change; interpretation of social character is based on participant observation and in some cases structured interviews. Maccoby creates a dialogue that raises the consciousness of the individuals studied by stimulating them to reflect on their experience and interpret it. The sample responded to Rorschach's Inkblot test to explore the inner life and style of thought (the test is detailed in the book's Appendix). In addition, the author observed the six leaders in action and heard what those who worked with them said about them. Chapter Four describes a foreman in Tennessee, a culture moving from the rural past to the organizational future. It is found that whereas some workers seek greater involvement in the work place, others prefer to find self-development outside. Chapter Five describes the kind of union leader essential to develop the quality of work life in mature industries and public service work, and it shows the advantages and problems of management-union cooperation. Chapter Six examines a plant manager in Scotland who is creating new ways to lead middle managers and cooperate with unions, despite a long regional tradition of labour militancy. The issue discussed is that of developing the competence to lead, once managers give up mechanistic control. Chapter Seven studies a Swedish chief executive gamesman cutting high-level deals, but also adapting himself and his company to bring out the best in a rapidly changing anti-authoritarian social character. Chapter Eight presents a woman who has demonstrated that it is possible to bring out the best in the civil service and who strives for a more cooperative and principled relationship between business and government. And lastly, in Chapter Nine a new-breed congressman is described, a former mayor who led a community out of economic stagnation and union management conflict that was driving business away. The issue here is how can a model of leadership develop a new approach to national policy.

The concluding chapter to the book is on the development of leadership using the contents of Chapters Four to Nine as a basis. The author asks, "What can we learn from these six [leaders] that will help develop leadership?" (p. 219).

It is difficult to find criticisms of this book. One might claim that it could be of shorter length or that the ideas generally are too much of a socio-psychological flavour and not enough practice-oriented. But positive points far outweigh the negative. In fact the book is profound in addressing leadership for the 1980's.

What is so impressive about *The Leader* is that the discussion goes well beyond a summary of previous ideas on leadership and, in particular, the human relations-type style which Maccoby eventually promotes is described with many fresh appropriate insights. Some very valid meaty suggestions are offered to the reader who is looking for assistance in managing in these current turbulent times. The author primarily suggests that the leader for today must care about people and identify with their strivings for dignity and self-development (p. 221). Further, this leader needs a caring, respectful, and responsible attitude; flexibility about people and organizational structure; and a participative approach to management. Herein lies the genius of the author. He is hitting at a very crucial notion. It is a notion that many modern-day executives are paying a price to realize. These leaders think that aggressiveness and pushing and "beating out" others is the way to approach their work. Actually, as Maccoby says, what we need are many more "delicate" people in leadership roles, people with an emotional reaction to their work. This is most appropriate.

In conclusion *The Leader* is an excellent book for these times. It is a book from which any reader will feel significant personal benefit. Maccoby realistically overviews the many styles of contemporary leadership and then promotes one rooted in such values as trust, integrity, fairness, consistency, and love. He believes that this is what management should be, what must be adopted if we are to create a better and more successful way of working and living in the years ahead. Undoubtedly his ideas will take time for acceptance as they represent an awesome challenge for the willingness to share power. And the basic personality traits of intelligence, ambition, will, vision, optimism and sense of humour are required. Leaders succeed only when they embody and express values rooted in the social character of group, class, or nation (p. 23).

The above description of an ideal leader will seem commonplace to most readers — nothing beyond a general human relations view. However, Maccoby's ideas become more profound when he begins to discuss the need for contemporary leaders to have education in the humanities. He argues that the best modern managers are well educated in science and technology and perhaps law and the ahistorical social sciences, such as economics. But they know little history and lack a sense of what human development means over time. They are unaware that irrational rules and institutions were probably once rational solutions to a problem that no longer exists. They do not understand that the modern scientific method did not spring full-blown into the eighteenth-century mind, but is rooted in values of truth and free inquiry that have been defended by heroic individuals (p. 231). Religion, ethical philosophy and psychology, and great literature leads one to explore the inner life, particularly the struggle to develop the human heart against ignorance, convention, injustice, disappointment, betrayal, and irrational passion.

So Maccoby puts great emphasis on leader self-realization. He suggests:

> One becomes oneself not by being more self-sufficient and calculating, but becoming more social, by developing the heart, through deeds and expressions of caring and feeling (p. 233).

Chapter 5

World Yearbook of Education 1986:
The Management of Schools*

Edited by Eric Hoyle and Agnes McMahon. New York, N.Y.: Nichols Publishing Company, 1986. 368 pages, charts, tables, diagrams.

This, the latest text in the World Yearbook of Education series, gives a fairly global perspective of contemporary school management approaches. The book deals with what the editors consider some of the most promising developments in the management of change. Overall the editors consider that the relationship of theory and practice is best based on contingency and loose coupling theories. *World Yearbook of Education 1986: The Management of Schools* is, as the title implies, a comprehensive synthesis of international views on the task of school administration. Its purpose is to present recent trends in theory and practice particularly regarding innovation, management and organization.

Many aspects of the book's format contribute to its readability and usefulness as a research text. Among them are its handling of bibliographical material, inclusion of information regarding contributors, and provision of individual abstracts with each article. Its presentation from a current ideological perspective, that of contingency theory and organizational development, renders it a current and practical approach to educational administration and management training.

Though clear and explicit, the title might better have included an indication of more than the usual North American perspective and a

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* Originally published with Marilyn McCuaig as first author

tendency toward the organizational development school of thought. This is a book of readings so that the style and readability of the articles differ somewhat. The editors have managed to collect an impressive and credible array of opinion. Individual chapters have been specifically commissioned from specialists drawn from Great Britain, Australia, Europe, Africa, North America and South East Asia. The editors themselves are from the University of Bristol, England and are specialists – Hoyle in educational research and teacher training, McMahon in educational research and management training. With twenty percent of the contributors being female, representation of this segment of the population is considerably larger than in most publications of its kind.

The book reviews existing theory and research in the field of school management, comparative education, and effective schools and discusses a variety of coping mechanisms employed in various countries to deal with problems such as staff development, management training, teacher training, staffing, teacher unionization, community relationships and occupational stress. Nevertheless, it is not entirely eclectic as contributions were commissioned specifically with contingency and organization development theories in mind.

The work is comprised of seven parts, twenty-three chapters in all, including an introductory overview by guest editor, Eric Hoyle. Several aspects of its format add to the book's general appeal. The contents are grouped under the following topics: theoretical perspectives, school managerial tasks, management selection, and management training. The book ends with reflections from an international perspective. A list of contributors with academic affiliation makes it easier to put the various viewpoints in perspective. Its inclusion at the front of the volume gives the reader the opportunity to begin with some idea of the range of backgrounds from which the material will be presented. In addition to the bibliography accompanying each individual article, an extensive composite bibliography is divided into four parts to assist the reader in locating reference material. The last section contains annotations on selected pieces which give valuable insight and lend credibility to much of the material. A helpful addition to this annotated bibliography, however, would have been the national affiliation of the author, as works are often published in a country other than the nation of origin. There are biographical notes on editors and contributors which help the reader place things in perspective. Both an author and a subject index are included to facilitate use of the book for research. Inclusion of an abstract with each article also contributes to the book's usefulness as a text and to its general readability. Graphic presentation of information is minimal with only seven of the contributors choosing to include figures at all and only Bossert and Bolam using them to any extent. Yet, much of the data, e.g., Schmuck's cross-cultural comparison of female teacher per capita representation in school administration (p.176) could be presented much more effectively in chart form.

From a graduate study point of view, the book suffers, generally, from the common malaise of such writings: jargon and the assumption of previous knowledge. For example, prior to graduate studies, many students, perhaps most, have not been exposed to the theoretical side of school administration and certainly not from a global perspective. References alone, though valuable to students studying a particular aspect of administration, are impractical if the author is relying on them for clarification. Some clarification should appear within the text. Of necessity, the piece by Per Dalin includes this when he presents his subjective perspective on the growth of IMTEC. Another omission is the relevance of expanding educational technology and the current emphasis on early childhood education to both school administration and management training.

It is refreshing to have the emphasis on comparative education more from a global perspective rather than the usual United States compared to the rest of the world. Only four of the twenty-nine contributors have American educational affiliation. However, references cited are still heavily weighted on the American side. There is, of course, good reason for this: more research and publication occurs there than in probably any other single country. It is general practice in educational administration, similarly, to adopt business theory, especially from the United States. The inclusion of Al-Khalifa's article outlining some of the concerns regarding this practice reflects recent questioning of this procedure.

There are many innovative insights; for example, Hoyle himself, in his introduction makes reference to the need for consultants in the translation of theory into practice within the context of contingency theory (p.20). Further, Dalin's personal assessment of the development of the IMTEC (International Movement Towards Educational Change) highlights the international emphasis on organizational development techniques as the underriding predictor of change.

World Yearbook of Education 1986: The Management of Schools follows in the footsteps of its predecessors in the series as a comprehensive addition to contemporary comparative education literature. Its focus is a natural progression from that of the 1985 World Yearbook on research, policy and practice. The Farquhar and Housego book of 1980 and that of Gray (1982) are useful in providing paradigms and terms, consolidating facts, and surmising about the future in an international perspective. And now the Hoyle and McMahon text. All of these books still seem to focus inordinately on process and current techniques; future books need to address fresh and vigorous alternative approaches to organizing schools for success in the new society and need to examine more the values and ethics underlying administrative behaviour in various contexts.

Yet, Hoyle and McMahon, in presenting a view of administrative application, are to be commended on both their choice of creditable sources and the organization of the material. They have produced a work worthy of inclusion in any practicing or aspiring educational administrator's library.

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Part 3

Essences

Chapter 1

Questioning Bureaucracy:
Beyond Weber, Argyris, and Bennis

Bureaucracy has a long history. The dynasties of China and the Roman Catholic Church are examples of this social phenomenon. It is only in the last fifty years (following Max Weber's examination of bureaucracy as a concept) that it has become the basis of substantial discussion. Many believe that bureaucratic structures are sources of problems in all levels of today's society.

In response to questions raised by his graduate students, the author shares his views on the subject and supports these with a broad review of the relevant literature. While it seems unclear whether bureaucracy in inherent in man's nature or results from socialization, it is assumed to be inevitable. Bureaucracy incorporates a multitude of elements; it is geared to order and efficiency, and it seems to be suited to certain types of individuals. However, it involves significant drawbacks. Bureaucratic operations are not always conducive to humane personal relations. Most bureaucratic models, (including the educational one) appear to be resistant to creativity and innovation.

A few writers foresee the emergence of some alternate organizational form of a more "adaptive" nature. Toffler for instance, talks of the "Ad-hocracies of tomorrow." As few of these ideas are practice-oriented, they may stimulate imagination but little essential change in the present bureaucratic trends.

Universities are also subject to the problems of a bureaucracy, particularly when business values take precedence over academic values in the solution of every day problems.

In the final analysis, it seems that the well-being of people working within bureaucratic structures can be protected provided there is concerted effort to revitalize institutions through humanistic awareness, the selection of excellent leaders, and continual questioning.

Many people believe that bureaucratic structures are problematic for today's society, and there is no lack of evidence to support this belief. Entire countries sometimes break down under the weight of their own bureaucracies; there are frequent stalemates in organizational contract bargaining; but, what is more meaningful and important, a great many individual employees arrive home each day feeling frustrated, angry, and helpless because of what "my job is doing to me". Some probing questions must be asked in order to gain some insight into how the well-being of people working in bureaucracies can be protected.

Bureaucracy defined

Most of the literature on bureaucracy begins with some reference to Max Weber's "ideal-type" construct. Some fifty years ago Weber stated that the following organizing principles maximize rational decision-making and administrative efficiency; the use of a division of labour and specific allocations of responsibility; a well-defined hierarchy of authority; administrative thought and action based on written policies, rules, and regulations; an impersonal, universalistic application of the bureaucratic environment to all inhabitants; and promotion and selection based on technical competence (quoted in Gerth and Mills 1946). Over the years many have criticized Weber's ideas, claiming inconsistencies and conflicting tendencies in his presentation. His failure to discuss dysfunctions, and the informal relations and unofficial patterns which develop in formal organizations, have been highlighted in particular (Gouldner, 1954; Merton, 1968; Parsons in Weber, 1947; Selznick, 1948).

Weber's academic and well-expressed ideas have become the basis of the literature, but it is important to realize that bureaucracies existed and were described well before Weber's time. The Dynasties of China, the armies of earlier civilizations, and the Roman Catholic Church are some examples (Steinberg, 1975). Despite the weaknesses in Weber's conceptions, he has made an outstanding contribution simply by stimulating further analyses of bureaucracy.

Today, the study of bureaucracy incorporates a multitude of elements: goal-setting, structure, power, authority, control, influence, communication, decision-making, motivation, leadership, team-building, conflict, effectiveness and efficiency, contracts, evaluation, change, climate, inter-organizational relationships and the institution-society interface. Basic approaches abound, as well, such as the scientific management, human relations, structuralist, systems, and phenomenological approaches. Finally, many "catch phrases" have emerged to describe bureaucratic processes — line and staff, the Peter Principle, satisficing (Simon), Murphy's Law, "Those who can't...", zone of indifference (Bridges), and the halo, Groupthink, and Doppelganger effects — to list a few. Some bureaucrats have decided, "When in doubt, mumble".

Question 1: Is bureaucracy the inevitable organizational structure which individuals will form?

It is intriguing to consider the question whether bureaucratic structures are inherent in man's nature or whether there are other, more natural organizational patterns. Without a doubt, bureaucracy involves some individuals leading and others being led. It involves competition, the application and enforcement of rules and regulations, and the emphasis by management on logic and on being motivated by rational, economic considerations in order to attain efficiency and effectiveness. Under this type of system the individual receives concrete guidance as to his or her responsibilities, and a steady, known remuneration. Direction and security are provided.

Indeed, it is difficult to find a group of people who are organized in other than a bureaucratic fashion, which is to say without a hierarchy of authority, without job specialization, and without rules and regulations. It might be argued that certain religious societies such as the Hutterites deviate from the norms of the typical bureaucracy, but even here its processes can be identified. The elders of the community constitute the authority, rules and regulations are contained in the Bible and in the traditions of the society, and job specialization exists in a general sense, though dependent on the needs of the community rather than on the skills of the individual.

In 1971 the author conducted an experiment with a group of Canadian Indians and Eskimos in order to examine certain possibilities in social structures. The native group was asked to imagine that they had been involved in a plane crash over a lake, as a result of which they all arrived on an island where they could expect to remain for a long time. The question was posed: "What would you do as a group?"

Initially, the group indicated that they would structure themselves more or less bureaucratically, forming committees to satisfy various personal and communal needs. These included a committee to hunt for food, a firewood committee, a water committee, a housing committee, a social committee, and later on an education committee. Some suggested that there would have to be a specific set of rules for behaviour and a police force so that members would not shirk work. It was felt that a defence force, good foreign relations, and some plan of conservation of resources were necessary [Many of these ideas can be tied to theories of human needs, motivation and informal organization (Etzioni, 1964; Lane, Corwin and Monahan, 1971; Maslow, 1962)].

Gradually however, the group showed a potential for organizing non-bureaucratically. One member spoke of not having a leader, on the somewhat peculiar grounds that this could produce mutiny later on. Others mentioned that they would not necessarily have a hunting committee; if one person killed an animal, all would share it as food. One member said, "I don't think we would really set up the society like we did. Indians would just *know* how to survive under these conditions." Yet in the main the suggested organization was bureaucratic in nature.

Blau (1962) explains that there are particular historical conditions within a given social structure which push men toward bureaucratic structures. A money economy with its payment of regular salaries creates a combination of dependence and independence in employees which is conducive to perpetuating bureaucracy. The sheer size of an organization and the emergence of special, complex administrative problems encourages the development of bureaucracies. Further, capitalism and religion both encourage it: the former, to be effective, requires governments to maintain order and stability; the latter, with its basis of rational discipline, fuels bureaucratic structure. And if men seek optimum efficiency in organization, which they ideally do, they will lean toward bureaucracy if Weber's view is valid.

In the final analysis it remains unclear whether bureaucracy is inherent in man's nature or whether it is the result of centuries of socialization, but in either case the fair answer to a question about the inevitability of bureaucratic structure seems to be "Yes, it is inevitable."

Question 2: Are there significant relationships between the concepts of bureaucracy and democracy?

On the surface it might appear that the broad, democratic society, with its emphasis on human freedom and the rights of the individual, is irreconcilable with the regimentation, the restrictions, and the impersonality of bureaucracy.

Bennis and Slater (1968) give an opinion on the question. They argue that democracy is inevitable but that bureaucracy is not. "[E]very age develops an organizational form appropriate to its genius, and . . .the prevailing form . . .bureaucracy . . .is out of joint with contemporary realities." (p. 54) Thus there is an incongruency which these authors suggest must be remedied. In somewhat of a contrast, Blau (1962) states that the free enterprise system of democracy fosters the development of bureaucracy. "The interest of capitalism demands . . .the establishment of governments strong enough to maintain order and stability". (p. 38) Further, it is often argued that the climate of impersonal detachment within bureaucracy engenders equitable treatment of all persons, thus fostering democracy. (Blau, 1962, p. 30) An example here would be the practice of the administrator who tells any employee who approaches him, asking for resources to try out a creative idea, "No, if I do it for you then I'll have to do it for everyone else who comes along." This may be practising democracy, but it would be stifling innovation.

Many would disagree that democracy is inevitable; in fact they might say that the opposite is true. From the discussion under Question One we would infer that bureaucracy is inevitable. It is suggested that bureaucracy and democracy in juxtaposition are contradictory, and yet bureaucracy does exist within democracy. It flourishes, in fact, as it has flourished throughout history in every conceivable form of government, from communist dictatorships to absolute monarchies to anarcho-syndicalist collectives. It seems, then, there is no significant relationship between bureaucracy and any type of government. It is perhaps true that democracy functions within bureaucracy rather than the other way around. Democracy, communism, monarchies, and so forth are not all-pervasive, whereas bureaucracy is, and it might well be that the survival of any type of government is dependent on its ability to function within a framework of bureaucracy.

Finally, of course, bureaucrats of communist countries might explain the relationship between democracy and bureaucracy as strong bureaucratic institutions being necessary for control in an interim stage leading to a true democratic society.

Question 3: How possible are the ideals of human relations approach, such as autonomy, self-realization, trust, and openness, in the typical organization?

The general flavour of the administration literature in recent years has been of "humanistic approaches." Griffith's new text *Administrative Theory in Education: Text and Readings* (1979) and *The New School Executive: A Theory of Administration* by Sergiovanni and Carver (1979) are cases in point. Argyris *(in Hack, et al.,* 1971) emphasizes the need to integrate the individual and the organization. Yet in the day-to-day operation of our institutions (bureaucracies) a multitude of workers are frustrated by the lack of humane and fair treatment. Many would say that the human relations approach is not realistic in today's organizations. In fact, some would argue that the principles of Taylor's impersonal, mechanistic, scientific management still abound.

Just how possible human relations are would seem to depend on the purposes (and technology) and size of an organization. Blau and Scott [in Carver and Sergiovanni (1969)] describe various purposes for formal organizations: economic, political, religious, educational, public service, and so on. (p. 13) Logically, one would expect a more humanistic climate in the service/people oriented institutions as opposed to the production/object oriented. One would also expect a correlation between the size of the institution and the extent of bureaucratization and hence the amount of depersonalization, as for example when the individual worker becomes increasingly remote from the head of the organization. Further, in these times, greater size of institution implies more continuous evaluation of staff and activities, which in turn is often associated with "dehumanization." On the other hand, in very large bureaucracies, increased humanism is possible within smaller subdivisions, especially through the impact of informal groupings.

To answer the question posed, it must be appreciated that different degrees of the human relations approach are possible at different levels of the organization, and a distinction must be made between the hypocritical "window-dressing" type of humanistic practices and those of the sincere, pervading type. (see Drucker, 1980, p. 193)

Question 4: What about bureaucratic organization and change and innovation?

Many argue that the very character of bureaucracy makes it resistant to change and innovation. For instance, Abbott (1969) and Hanson (1979) state that an organizational hierarchy has a natural tendency to slow down the process of change. Kimbrough and Todd (in Heald, 1970) mention that school bureaucracies generally lack the willingness to expand and to probe the unknown. (p. 418) Several specific points about this bureaucracy are listed: the inability to legitimize differences in ideas among personnel depresses creativity; new ideas generated from within are often vetoed by members of the official hierarchy, especially if they are in conflict with perceived rational teaching behaviour; there is an inadequate structure and process for the review of decisions in the bureaucracy; the extrinsic reward system stimulates conformity rather than innovations; the prior commitments of organizational resources to subunits within the organization make it difficult to develop innovative solutions for new problems; and the lines of communication are often closed because of hierarchical divisions. (p. 420) Many theorists believe that until tendencies such as these are reversed, change and innovation will be difficult.

However, other individuals believe that in recent years the educational bureaucracy has been amply open to, and involved in, change and innovation. Witness the pluralism, the collegial relations in decision making, the community participation, and the general decentralization thrusts in school systems. "Grassroots" curriculum development is a good example. The level of the bureaucracy on which we are focussing again, becomes important in considering whether bureaucracy stimulates or inhibits change and innovation.

It is true, though, that real and seemingly-real intentions and results must be carefully distinguished.

Question 5: How is the study of bureaucracy useful for the educational practitioner?

Bureaucratic theory provides the practitioner with a tool for the understanding of his or her environment. He is able to dissect situations and to become more aware of where he fits in the hierarchy. The theory includes discussion of change, morale, power, leadership, communications, and decision-making; it provides the practitioner with ideas to sharpen his skills.

The historical development of bureaucratic theory enlightens the practitioner as to the various possible approaches to managing: Scientific Management, Human Relations, Structuralist, Systems, etc. He can learn in which situations to use which approach. Moreover, one learns through the theory how one is socialized into organizational roles. Thus there is an increase in self-awareness.

On the value of a systems approach to a school administrator, Griffith (1979) says the following:

> It is a model or conceptual analogue for examining the way a school functions. It indicates that a school is a suprasystem composed of interrelated and interdependent subsystems and that the boundaries of these subsystems must be clearly demarcated to prevent duplication and waste . . .
>
> Systems theory is also a theory base for research, a framework around which an investigator can organize his observations and thinking. It is a guide by which school personnel can bring about curricular change and improve the quality of a school's service to its students and community. Finally, it is a method of budgeting and evaluation, of determining the financial needs of each component and of assessing the relationships between input and output. (pp. 31-32)

So the systems component of bureaucratic theory would seem to be potentially very useful. Generally, the study of bureaucracy brings understanding for the practitioner, resulting in valuable insights into accountability phenomena and style. The theory helps the practitioner to formulate questions to be answered about his or her organization, and knowing the questions is usually more than half the battle. Directions about how to change and innovate emerge. And important ideas appear about what is sometimes referred to as "coping effectively with difficult people".

Bureaucratic organization has been with us for some time and there is no evidence to suggest that it will not continue for some time to come. While it does provide order and a degree of efficiency, there are critical drawbacks to such a structure. The well-being of employees is not what it should be. Bureaucracies may be admirably suited to those individuals who need clearcut directions and rewards in a work situation, but at the same time they can stifle the creativity and initiative of others. All bureaucracies, including the educational one, appear to be resistant to change and innovation.

Many employees do not enjoy their jobs. They get frustrated with the oppression of the bureaucracy. It is a problem of a deficient integration of the individual's needs, interests, and potentials with the goals of the organization (Argyris, 1966). C. Wright Mills explains the "floating paranoia" which sets into people who feel little control over their job situation. Specifically, there is often poor leadership; management holds too much power in too many organizations. As a result, we see insufficient communication, inappropriate reward systems, and poor morale. Too many people get into positions of management which they cannot handle and this sets off a multitude of difficulties: cutting of corners, too many meetings, temper tantrums, loss of sight of organizational goals and of sound , proven value bases from which to operate, loss of interest in employees' needs, and generally a resorting to personal survival practices. Many managers appear to become almost psychotic. And well-meaning, capable employees must suffer the consequences. Workers are often ordered to do as they are told and to not ask any questions. Most important, these kinds of things discourage excellent people from joining the organization. It is a complex situation which will not be overcome easily — but choosing excellent leaders is the starting point.

Several writers see the elimination of bureaucracy and the creation of an alternative organizational form as necessary in the future. Bennis (1966) feels that rapid and unexpected change, overwhelming organizational size, the complexity of modern technology, and an enlightened managerial approach will lead to the following:

> Adaptive, problem-solving, temporary systems of diverse specialists, linked together by coordinating and task-evaluating executive specialists in an organic flux — this is the organization form that will gradually replace bureaucracy as we know it . . .I call this an organic-adaptive structure. (p. 265)

Argyris states that in the organization of the future, "[T]he concept of directive authority or power will be expanded to include the influence of individuals, through rewards and penalties that minimize dependence, through internal commitment, and through the process of confirmation." (p. 273) Toffler addresses specifically the educational bureaucracy:

> The present administrative structures of education, based on industrial bureaucracy, will simply not be able to cope with the complexities and rate of change . . .They will be forced to move toward ad-hocratic forms of organization merely to retain some semblance of control . . .Super-industrial education must prepare people to function in temporary organizations — the Ad-hocracies of tomorrow. (p. 408)

Many writers have attempted to explain deep, profound forces which are at work in society (*The Hidden Persuaders, Battle for the Mind, The Brain Watchers)* and others have described a total society of the future, such as *Brave New World* and *1984.* Andrews and Karlins (1971) envision a "psytocracy", a society where all things, including people "things", are subject to careful and precise technical manipulation. (p. 53)

I am not so hopeful that the bureaucratic structures of the future will be much different from those of today. Imaginative futurists and analysts stimulate our thinking, but few of their ideas are practice-oriented. They ignore too much the key "people" side of things. People have basic needs, especially the need for security, and they will not accept extended oppression and manipulation passively.

For instance, Bennis and Slater (1968) missed something very crucial in their projections about the future organic/temporary work situation. They did not anticipate that employees in the 1970's-80's would become militant and take initiatives to protect their job security through collective agreements. This is the reality nowhere mentioned in many other futurists' arguments. Granted, such things as automation and computers will alter — in fact are already beginning to alter — the nature of bureaucracies, but people are bound to protect their self-interest. The Polish workers' assertiveness is a more recent exmaple. Changing the ownership of organizations from private to public, including having employees as owners, is another alteration we are seeing in bureaucracies. (Doig, 1975) This is more conducive to worker self-interest, yet it is doubtful whether the change produces an alleviation of the common organizational problems. (Argyris, 1966, p. 277) The particular purposes and ownership of a bureaucracy influence its general internal climate and the extent to which the aforementioned problems are present. Unlike business organizations, educational organizations have a "guaranteed existence" through society's tax money and support. In my view this results in less caring about inefficiencies and in poor leadership in the system. I see serious, immense problems along the following lines for universities:

1. There is not enough sharing of the same ideas about the purpose of the university. One result is that business values often take precedence over academic values.

2. Too many administrators work from a business base rather than from an academic base. Term appointment of new faculty, stemming from supposedly declining student enrolments, is an example of a business practice. It exploits people, effects poor morale, and works against academic freedom.

3. The current promotion and tenure system tends to foster misunderstanding, jealousy, and disagreement about criteria. As a result, many good academics decide to emphasize serving the profession rather than their particular university.

4. The educational bureaucracy of today contributes to poor health in its employees. University administrators appear to lack insight and sensitivity concerning the way experience and stress take their toll on a normal employee. The bureaucracy often fails to provide enough security for older employees.

5. The "gloom and doom" attitudes and the use of undesirable value bases which currently abound in educational bureaucracies are contagious. Again, it keeps "good" people from wanting to join.

In 1887 Woodrow Wilson, in his essay "The study of Administration", argued that executive method should be based on stable principles rather than empiricism. Currently in our institutions this is not enough the case. Bureaucracies need to hire the very best people they can get. There is a great need for disciplined, decent leaders who apply common sense and have a deep regard for their employees. We need leaders of expert vision who are capable of courageous acts. (Perrow, 1973, p. 13) Leaders are needed who believe that the great majority of workers *want* to do well, *are* responsible, and, if the organizational situation is right, *will* perform well.

We are an organizational society. (Presthus, 1962) In recent years we have become a collective bargaining and legalistic-oriented society. With our expanding knowledge in such areas as organizational psychology, organization development, and career development [e.g., Mayer (1978); Schein (1978)] it is possible to make bureaucracies enjoyable places for people to work, and let's face it, work is a very important aspect of one's life. Currently, many institutions are breaking the spirit of workers and harming families. At work the onus seems to be on the employee to save himself. Obviously this is wrong. The potential is with us to put our knowledge to work to truly humanize bureaucracies and, as Bennis (1966) says, generally to revitalize our institutions. (p. 262) This begins with a continual questioning of the bureaucracy.

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Chapter 2

Administrating Without Ulcers:
A Leadership Concept for These Times

Over the years a variety of leadership theories have been presented in the literature. They emphasize a number of aspects of leadership from the personality and physical traits of an effective leader to the environment in which the leadership is occurring, to a focus on combinations of trait and environmental factors. Recently, the maturity of those being led has been of interest to leadership theorists. Traditionally, the theories have revolved around the notion of whether leaders are "born or made". The discipline of educational administration has concerned itself with the formal study of leadership.

The existing leadership theories do not go far enough in emphasizing a particular aspect of what it takes to be an effective leader of institutions in contemporary society. They are helpful for understanding organizational structures, interest groups, the mechanics involved in leading, but they generally fail to explain the key psychological talent or mind set required of the effective leader. Good administrating, without ulcers, is the goal. In this article, some straightforward, workable suggestions for achieving it are presented. The theory of Sydney Fogel, M.D., is drawn upon, and special application to educational administration is made.

Stress in Contemporary Administrators

Administrators experience both mental and physical stress. Stress has an insidious nature. It is often absent or minimal when a person begins in an administrative post, but it can grow over time to the point where it overwhelms the person. The origin of the stress is in large part the many expectations of the interest groups with which the administrator must deal. Its symptoms vary from simple irritability to headache, muscle tension, arthritis, alcoholism, use of drugs, hypertension, nervous breakdown, and ulcers. Different administrators react to stress in different ways.

In April 1972, I completed a study, "The Pressures on an Educational Administrator", that identified pressures within the school and outside the school which come to bear on educational administrators. Eleven Ontario school principals indicated how strongly they felt pressures from various sources: the central office, students' parents, students, the provincial department of education, local trustees, school staff, federal educational agencies, their own families. Overall, the greatest pressure was reported to be that from the students and the school staff. These administrators reported that they coped with the pressures using a variety of techniques including the following: to refer to the school acts and education department regulations, to negotiate with the parties concerned, to read about new methods, to wait it out, to open the school to parents, to respond intuitively considering the facts and their professional experience, to delegate others to solve the problem, to seek additional professional opinions, to communicate with parents about potential child discipline problems, to have staff members share in decision making, to time tasks, and to be sure to take their holidays and relax.

Decades ago administrators felt stress too, but coping probably did not take the same forms as today. In times past there was more consideration of and adherence to accepted social procedures. In recent years society has been in a vigorous upheaval with regard to value bases. Everywhere the philosophy behind the idea of "doing your own thing" has changed attitudes and possibitlites. Witness the tolerance of lotteries, prematital sexual relations, the lowering of the age of majority, divorce, and homosexuality - issues which, years ago, would have been viewed as threats to the very foundation of society. Administrators felt the brunt of these attitudinal changes. Executive stress is perhaps more intense now and it stems from a greater number of complex sources. The decline of conservatism has necessitated the use of more complex coping techniques.

The educational leader, in constantly serving society's young, is as susceptible as any executive to the changing times.

A Leadership Concept for These Times

If todays administrator is to be effective and to personally enjoy work, something extra is called for, and it must come from within the person.

The cultivation of a continual inner calmness and serenity in the midst of a hectic milieu with all its stress factors - this is a leadership concept ideal for these times. The existing leadership theories generally fail to adequately discuss this concept. They make it clear that the effective leader is bright, sociable, healthy, articulate, an organizer, and an open, patient individual of integrity who keeps democratic practices in mind. There is, however, something more at the core of effective contemporary administrating.

Ralph Kimbrough, in listing characteristics of effective school administrators, recognizes the concept when he says: ". . . [the administrator] appears to meet crises with a contagious calmness; others feel at ease in his presence." Elaboration is required, however. Recent writings on "total self" by Dr. Sydney Fogel help. Fogel points out that although some people believe that personal calmness and apathy go hand in hand, this is not so; a person performs any task better in a calm state. He also notes that the claim that to be tense and experience stress is a good thing is "nonsense". To be freed of all tension and stress is best.

Fogel explains that in our society the idea has developed that an individual is in a tremendous competition and that one must constantly be trying to get ahead. This is particularly the case with regard to the male trying to make a career. One must always be "on your toes" for fear of missing opportunities. This is a key cause of stress and can tie people in knots. For many, to adopt these attitudes is "suicidal."

A better approach is to develop a relaxed frame of mind and keep working. One can perform better, be just as productive, and will avoid being "up tight." The ideals of relaxation, calmness, serenity, and peace are not impressed upon people, yet if these concepts were kept in mind as part of the approach to day to day tasks, administrators would be more at ease both with themselves and in the situations they must face.

The administrator who feels stress, should stop and ask the question: "Why must I be in this state of tension?" On a basic level there are no good reasons to feel stressed, for when one must do a particular task, it will be done with or without succumbing to tension. Why not be easier on yourself and do the task without it?

Not being emotionally independent enough sustains stress in people. It is particularly true in the field of education that people tend to care a great deal about what others think of them. Witness how in meetings of educators, individuals will so often look around to gauge the reactions of others before reacting themselves. This dependency can become unhealthy and even ridiculous, and it certainly does sustain stress. Closely allied to this feeling of dependency is the feeling of guilt. Guilt, too, is a sustainer of tension.

One does a better job when one feels serene, and serenity is contagious. Stress is really an unnecessary handicap from which one can free oneself to be at ease, to achieve, and to affect others positively. To cultivate not feeling guilty about things is part of what is necessary.

Adopting the Proposed Concept

Administrating without being stressed can be achieved. What I am suggesting is cultivating a calmness. For the administrator who wants to, this can start immediately. Just start thinking "Relax" while you carry on your usual activities. Age is not important. Neither is the fact that your life is racing and hectic and many individuals (including your family) have many expectations of you. Why not be calm within, through it all? You will be easier on yourself and others. Think "Relax" from the moment you awake in the morning.

Some administrators will find it less difficult than others to cultivate this calm. It is suggested that this depends on the type of value base (or set of principles) from which the administrator operates. Further, it is suggested that for the administrator who is interested in attaining this calm quickly and permanently, there is a preferred-type value base from which one should be operating. This base can be generally characterized as "humanistic/developmental" as opposed to other principles which might be described as leading to "self-interested/manipulative" behaviour. The "humanistic/developmental" administrator is a decent, genuine, and humane individual. The leader working with such a value base appreciates the following statements.

Life is a competitive affair.

Many things one worries about never actually happen.

Most theories do not work in practice.

It is important to be able to recognize an honest person.

It is important to treat people with a basic human decency.

It is important to recognize others' efforts and to congratulate appropriately.

Everything a person does in life is important in your assessment of his/her worth.

Real organizational productivity is defined, in large part, in terms of worthwhile human development.

Effective administrators tend to put people before organizations.

A truly strong person is strong enough to let other people be who they are, and does not feel pushed around by the strength of others; such persons have an air of quiet confidence.

Effective administrators are able to handle many things at once, including a family situation.

Effective administration involves commitment, confidence, communication, and risk taking. Any good administrator must frequently say "no."

An effective administrator realizes that a foundation of democratic practices work when people do not disagree in a disagreeable manner.

Experience is a large part of effective leadership.

Effective administrators take their holidays and do not take their job home.

It is suggested that the administrator who keeps these principles in mind will find it easier to cultivate an inner calm. To follow these principles implies expending great amounts of time and energy (physical and mental) and taking firm stands on particular issues. Many stress-creating situations will be involved. These principles promote administration based on higher ideals, however, and they will serve the leader well. Together they form an excellent rationale for action and will fuel developing sereneness in the administrator. Being relaxed, the administrator can be most effective and clear-headed about issues of importance.

Many executives already have adopted the concept and are looking to transcendental meditation or yoga or consciously developing outside hobbies to help them relax. These are highly personalized activities. Administrative style is also a personal thing and contemporary administrators must have approaches that work for them. Some may not work from a value base such as the one presented earlier. They might view this as too "soft" or "politically naive." This is fair. One is entitled to one's view. It is suggested here that the humanistic value base lends itself to better results. I believe that all administrators who are interested in improving can do so by cultivating inner calmness; whatever the leadership value base, inner calmness is a worthwhile goal.

Articles and texts on stress and the use of methods like transcendental meditation and biofeedback by executives have been appearing, especially in business publications like the *Harvard Business Review* and *The Financial Post*. In educational administration, Professor Edwin Bridges began some studies on "executive stress" within education in the early 1970s, and Dyer has elaborated some ideas in *OCLEA*, 1977. Recently, Farquhar, in discussing new directions for leadership studies, reports the current thinking that the inner state (his/her maturity state) of the leader is a key concept.

Continuing flux in society and the tremendous mobility of persons mean that dealing with change will definitely be part of the modern-day administrator's job. It has been suggested that in the future, the education community can look forward to being more needed and less wanted than ever before. Also, an idea is current that it is not how good an administrator is, but how long he or she lasts that is important. With notions such as these prevailing, leaders, especially in education, might look on their job as "a tough battle" in which stress-related problems are occupational hazards. A way of avoiding this outlook may be a key to improving educational leadership especially.

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Chapter 3

Democracy in Home and School

Democracy as a political construct has special meaning. The very essence of democracy, whether in government, home or school, is the significance which it gives to the individual. In a democracy, the essential unit of society is the individual. The democratization of a culture is a very long process because it takes generations to overcome deeply ingrained biases and prejudices.

Where countries have adopted a democratic system of government over the past three or four hundred years, it has not always been the rule that its homes, schools and businesses have become democratic as well. The process of transforming a variety of pockets within our society is now in progress.

One of the essential dimensions of a democracy is the equality of personhood. In a political democracy this equality is expressed in the ability of individuals to exercise some personal power and internal control over who will rule and also how the government will rule. It seems fair to say then, that where individuals are not given the right to exercise some measure of personal power in a dimension of their life, their democracy and equality of personhood is at best an empty label and at worst a willful effort to deceive.

In a democracy, it is personhood that is the essential unit of the system. Differences in wealth, power, sex, creed, ability, age, colour and experience are not to be used as standards to discriminate between members of the society. As persons, we are to be treated with equal empathic dignity and respect.

The position of leadership in a democratic culture does not include the right of arbitrary control over others. The responsibility to lead does not mean capricious decision making for those who are being led. Equality of personhood means some semblance of equality in the decision making process. Those who lead and those who are being led must share in the responsibility for the direction and purpose of the group. When those who are being led are convinced that they are being manipulated and essentially are powerless in their position in life, they make the position of leadership an intolerable one.

William Glasser describes it well in *Identity Society* where he identifies the gap that exists between leaders and their groups. Parents at times identify the gap between themselves and their children as a generation gap. Others tend to call it a communication gap. Whatever the label, it is usually a serious and difficult distance between leaders and their group. The distance is a gap in understanding about personhood. Where leaders make decisions which essentially reflect the position and sentiments of the leader himself, the gap widens.

There is a question of leadership style. Where the leader's goals are consistent with the goals of the members of the group and where the leader is empathic to the feelings and needs of the group, the gap grows smaller.

In the classroom the inequality of personhood is expressed in another way. The teacher says;

"Look here kids. Do your work and learn the skills and perform the tasks which I have given you and then you will qualify for personhood. The only ones who are persons in my classroom are the individuals who have qualified in this way."

This teacher's conception is that personhood is a reward for work well done. This is true of most authoritative systems because the belief about the inequality of persons is well established. The leader holds all the cards. The shared belief is that the successful completion of certain tasks is rewarded by acceptance of individuals by the leader.

But where the class does not accept that belief, there the capricious and arbitrary decision making on the part of the teacher causes great problems. The students rise up and say:

"Hold it, teach! We are persons already! We are born with our personhood in tact, it comes with conception! It can't be taken away; it's part of me from womb to tomb. If you try to take it from me, or treat me as though I don't have it then I will have to fight. Because I'm fighting for my life. It's what I am all about. If I am not a person then I am not anything at all!"

"I may be small, I may be disabled, I may not be very smart, perhaps I don't catch on to things as quickly as you would like, but I am a person. When I am not seen as a person then everything you say is somehow blocked out. Your non-acceptance of me is a barrier that makes hearing you impossible. Your acceptance of me is the channel that make everything you expect from me possible."

The student's perception is that acceptance of personhood is a given condition. It is the benchmark. It is the baseline. All roads lead everywhere from the point of acceptance.

When confronted with this philosophy, the reaction from teachers occasionally is, 'you mean I have to let the kids do whatever they want!' or 'you mean they are in control!' or 'you mean that I have a responsibility to teach, but you want to take away all of my power to fulfill my obligations!' Not really. This philosophy does not mean any of these things. If it means anything, it means the opposite. Democracy should enhance the teacher to fulfill his role and better than any other way, meet his own expectations.

Equality means that the tendency of the leader to include others in the decision-making process is greater than the tendency to leave others out. It means that the wants, intentions, expectations and feeling of the people being led are at least as significant to the decision-making process as the wants, intentions, expectations and feel of the leader. It means that the individual members of the group are not being ignored, and that they count in the measure of the organization.

Perhaps a more common and a more critical comment from teachers is "I've tried this approach and it seems to work well for the majority of students, but there are a few for whom it definitely does not work, so I had to scrap the whole thing!" Whereas it is true that the democratic process does not automatically solve all problems, it does not seem reasonable to throw out a system because of the few for whom it apparently does not work. Furthermore, the strength of the democratic process is best illustrated when applied to the seemingly unmanageable persons.

When a teacher is faced with certain difficult members of his class who do not respond well to the normal efforts of the teacher, then it is time for the community of caretakers, such as the parents, teachers, principal, superintendent and board, to do exactly what our larger democratic society does with its members who refuse to follow the acceptable mode of behavior; we find socially acceptable ways of placing these individuals into positions of discomfort. Utilizing the principles of democracy, the logical consequences of aberrant behaviour is agreed upon and understood by everyone. There are no surprises. The individual who chooses a deviant expression of behavior has done so with the full knowledge of the consequences which he knows will follow. The choice to misbehave is the individual's. The responsibility of the leader is then to see that the logical consequences are duly experienced by the erring member. The whole process is predictable and sure. There is a great deal of evidence to support the view that it is not the severity of consequences that is significant but rather it is their certainty that makes the difference. So then there is no need for teachers to devise unreasonably severe consequences for misdeeds, rather that they be consistent in their administration of the consequences.

The democratic leadership style is not new. Some of the greatest leaders the world has known have used this approach. Sir Winston Churchill said of Moses "He is the greatest statesman the world has ever known." And even a superficial study of Moses' leadership style reveals that equality of personhood was the very cornerstone of all of his dealings with his people. If that is what it took to lead a million cantankerous nomadic Hebrews in their forty-year search for the promised land, it will take no less to face the challenge of leadership in our homes, classrooms and schools.

Chapter 4

Educational Organizations: Contemporary Complexities, and I Quote[*]

"............there is a profound sense in which to be a teacher or principal is to become a force as violent as those that play in being a guard in a concentration camp............Teachers and principals............represent patterns of thinking and values.........They must impose a way of being........."

— **Thomas B. Greenfield (1979)**

"Grace is reserved for those who accumulate years in school."

— **Ivan Illich (1969)**

"Schools, as they presently exist, do more to teach children the capacity to endure the tedium of what they will face later on in life than to provide them with the skills to think critically............"

— **Peter McLaren (1979)**

"Verbalistic lessons, reading requirements, the methods for evaluating "knowledge", the distance between the teacher and the taught, the criteria for promotion ; everything in this ready-to-wear approach serves to obviate thinking."

— **Paulo Freire (1968)**

"Almost all education has a political motive ; it aims at strengthening some group, national or religious or even social, in the competition with other groups. It is this motive in the main which determines the subjects taught, the knowledge offered and the knowledge withheld and also decides what mental habits the pupils are expected to acquire."

— **Bertrand Russell (1917)**

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[*] Originally published with Gregory H. Sparks as First author

"Can the educational system as a whole, the most traditional, conservative, rigid, bureaucratic institution of our time, come to grips with the real problems of modern life ? Or will it continue to be shackled by the tremendous social pressures for conformity and retrogression added to its own traditionalism ?"

— Carl R. Rogers (1969)

"Planning in the traditional bureaucratic organization is an elite process............Identification with organizational needs is often lost in organizational management ; children have served organizational needs more than their educational needs have been served."

— R. B. Kimbrough and E. A. Todd (1970)

"Any situation in which "A" objectively exploits "B" or hinders his pursuit of self affirmation as a responsible person is one of oppression. Such a situation constitutes violence............because it interferes with man's ontological and historical vocation to be more fully human."

— Paulo Freire (1968)

"The education which we must develop moves toward fostering...... ......the process person, the creative person, the improvising person, the self-trusting, courageous person, the autonomous person."

— Abraham Maslow (1971)

"Hardly anything is done to foster the inward growth of mind and spirit ; in fact, those who have had the most education are very often atrophied in their mental and spiritual life, devoid of impulse, and possessing only certain mechanical aptitudes which take the place of living thought."

— Bertrand Russell (1917)

"Lacking their own independent visions of what to do or what to be, most individuals become what others now or before them, have created for them."

— Thomas B. Greenfield (1979)

"One of the greatest obstacles to the achievement of liberation is that oppressive reality absorbs those within it and thereby acts to submerge men's consciousness."

— Paulo Freire (1968)

"Persons in positions of power determine what is "rational" : they select what to them seems to be the most efficient means for attaining the goal in question."

— Gideon Sjoberg (1975)

"Organizational theory has too frequently defended conventional social realities and ignored the process whereby sets of people and ideas are in contention over what is reality and how one should behave in it."

— Thomas B. Greenfield (1979)

"Theories about organizations are valid only if they describe the context in which the organization exists ; the historical time and place, the economic, social and political forces in operation, and the beliefs, values and biases of the theorist examining the organization."

— Gregory Sparks (1980)

"Curriculum reformers who have tried to place more emphasis on sponteneity, inquiry, meaning and discovery are on the right track—but they must look even further for their answers—perhaps even as far as a change in the social fabric itself."

— Peter McLaren (1979)

"(There is) the timeless fear that every society harbours of its artists, poets and saints. For they are the ones who threaten the status quo, which each society is devoted to protecting."

— Rollo May (1975)

"Organizations require philosophers, individuals who can provide articulation between seemingly inimical interests, who can............transcend vested interests, regional ties and professional biases."

— Warren Bennis (1968)

"Adequate remedies are not likely to be fashioned by those who are not hostile to the evils to be remedied."

— Thomas Szasz (1968)

"Freedom is acquired by conquest, not by gift. It must be persued constantly............"

— Paulo Freire (1969)

"The rebel—Jesus, Socrates, Joan of Arc, though ostracized by their contemporaries, were recognized and worshipped by the following ages."

— Rollo May (1975)

"God knows we need a society that shows respect, concern, responsibility, compassion and honesty. But we won't create it by looking only through the rose coloured glasses of the Official View. We might create it looking at the full spectrum of unofficial realities as well."

— David Cooke (1977)

"The study of educational administration deals ultimately with the definition of self and the nature of relationships among people, so it is not surprising that the field is beset with many complexities and puzzles."

— Thomas B. Greenfield (1980)

Chapter 5

Appreciation - An Important Teaching

Laura wanted to make her husband, George, happy. But for all her efforts, George showed no sign of appreciation. When confronted with this disregard for Laura, he defended himself saying, "I'm just not that kind of person. She knows how much I appreciate her; I don't have to say it or show it."

George was wrong.

Everyone needs to be appreciated. We need to know that we are appreciated for who we are, and this need can be satisfied so easily. It does not require an unceasing barrage of chocolates, roses, cards and letters (although all of these are good ideas). The most fundamental and satisfying signs of appreciation are the smiles, the warm touches and the simple "thank you's." These are priceless in value.

The natural impulse of many is to be ungrateful, discontented, unappreciative and thankless. Ten lepers were healed by Jesus, but only one returned to give thanks. We can sense Jesus' disappointment when he asked, "Were not all ten cleansed? Where are the other nine?" Unfortunately the natural bent is to write our blessings on a scratch pad and indelibly engrave our trials in marble.

Even though it may be natural for us to be ungrateful and unappreciative, we know that contentment and gratitude can be learned. Circumstances are frequently outside of our control but our level of contentment is within our power.

It takes a sense of genuine humility to express appreciation, both to God and to man. Those who say, "I have not learned to say, 'Thank you'", and those who claim to be truly grateful but simply are not expressing it are hiding behind a wall of pride.

Any gestures of appreciation which stem from a position of superiority and pride will be perceived as patronizing and condescending. The Samaritan, cleansed of leprosy, returned to give thanks because he was humble.

Pride is believing that I have accomplished something by my own resources when in reality God and others did it for me and often with me. The human inclination is to take the full credit for oneself. This is the temptation when we become materially wealthy and independent. The wisdom of Proverbs adds this, "Give me neither poverty nor riches lest I be full and deny Thee, or lest I be in want and steal." In poverty or plenty, we are to be grateful for what we have.

Gratitude and appreciation help both those who show it and those who receive it.

A successful writer was hospitalized as a result of deep depression. One day a friend dropped by to give him some encouragement. He suggested that the writer list all the people who had helped him and then demonstrate his appreciation to them in some way.

The writer recalled a teacher who had invested time and energy in encouraging the very talents that had made him famous. He sent a letter expressing his genuine gratitude and appreciation. In a few weeks a reply came. "When I read your letter", she wrote, "I was blinded with tears . . . I taught school for 50 years . . . . Yours is the first letter of thanks I have received from a student, and I shall cherish it until I die." The author continued to write letters of appreciation. His depression not only left him, but he remained free from it as he continued to thank those around him.

Sometimes we need encouragement and acts of appreciation more than at other times: when we are depressed, when we are ill, when we struggle with marriage and family breakdown, when our children run away . . ., whenever we fail. We must have the heart to reach out a hand of encouragement to those who feel a deep sense of failure. We fail and we need encouragement. So do others.

We had a hard-working pastor who experienced a time of serious depression. After weeks of recuperation, when he returned to the pulpit, he was understandably insecure and unsure. It was not until we had made a concerted effort to demonstrate our appreciation of him and his work, that he was able to recover fully and once again feed the flock. Many times in the years since then, he has testified to the power of those people who genuinely reached out in his time of infirmity, confusion and despair and helped to restore him to his former strength.

The number of ways of showing appreciation are as many as the persons and occasions which cross our paths. The key is to have a heart of true gratitude. Then the expression and tokens of appreciation will flow naturally. Here is a partial list of my own:

Encourage an older person.
Thank someone for having corrected you.
Listen to someone.
Say "Thank You."
Hug a loved one closely and say, "I love you."
Thank someone for teaching you special skills.
Give your parents a break.
Thank God for all he has given you.

Make a list of your own.

Chapter 6

What REALLY Motivates Many of Today's Workers:

The M/F/S Theory For Administrators

There is a wealth of literature on human motivation. For instance, most standard texts on organization include at least a chapter; it is particularly important for administrators to have knowledge about what makes their employees tick. A key idea behind this article is that there is a much simpler, more straightforward answer to the question of what motivates contemporary workers than the literature suggests.

Frederick Taylor based his theory of scientific management on assumptions that people are basically lazy and will try to do as little work as they can for as much reward. Abraham Maslow believed that the highest form of human motivation stems from unsatisfied needs related to self-esteem and self-actualization. And Frederick Herzberg presents his motivation-hygiene theory - through a discussion of "satisfiers" and "dissatisfiers" in a work setting. His "satisfiers" are achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement, and his "dissatisfiers" are salary, possibility of growth, interpersonal relations, status, supervision, policy and administration, working conditions, job security, and personal life (Herzberg, 1968). This particular theory is somewhat confusing because of the potential overlap of satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Dunnette (1966) is critical when he refers to it as "the overly simplified but widely popular two-factor theory of job motivation." Thomas Sergiovanni applied Herzberg's ideas to educators. Some other concepts of motivation which appear in the literature are the "carrot and stick approach", the psychologists' power, prestige, and privilege scheme, and Herzberg's KITA (Kick Him In The A--) idea (1968a).

The usual theories of motivation found in the literature have their uses. Some apply to particular types of work setting (e.g., business, industry, government or education) or culture (Hofstede, 1980). Parts of some apply universally, some applied to organizations years ago. But times have changed and I believe that what really motivates the majority of people at work (or anywhere else in the 1980s) can be stated quite simply - Money, Fun, and Sex.

The Theory Explained

MONEY

Money has always been a motivator for people to work but this is even more the case in modern times. Materialistic goods, general luxuries, and the "good life" are flaunted to the public through advertising. These cost money. Many believe that money can buy happiness. Meanwhile the general cost of living rises. Workers want more and more money so that they can buy and buy. Sergiovanni and Carver in *The New School Executive* (1980) have a section on the meaning of money with respect to job satisfaction (p.109). They suggest that for top achievers at work, money is a legitimate form of recognition; money communicates to others that one is a success. Further, they pose the question "How much money is enough?" Their conclusion is that people always feel that they are entitled to more money, and the best that can be done is to have employees feel that they are paid fairly in comparison to others in their own organization and in other occupations (p.110). I believe that contemporary workers desire hard money considerably more than they do things like status, responsibility, and autonomy.

FUN

To be highly motivated in a work setting these days a person must find a job to offer enjoyment. There must be "fun" in the job - fun colleagues, fun situations, and generally a sense of humour in the situation. Humour is a tremendous motivator. The employee needs to identify with a friendly, sociable group. The ideal situation appears to be to have a group of genuine, committed, hard-working, and happy co-workers in one's organization.

The Hawthorne Studies of the 1920s and 1930s revealed the importance of things other than wages and physical working conditions in employee motivation to produce. In the 1980s, I believe that people look for considerable fun in their work and, with all the choice of different types of job and a widespread declining sense of moral responsibility to "stick with it", if they don't find this enjoyment, they change jobs.

SEX

Generally, society is squeamish about discussing sex as a strong day-to-day motivator of people. Yet it is just that. This sexual influence is displayed in several forms. Often people seek sex from someone who interests them as a reward for the status of job which they have attained; the worker hopes that someone will be impressed (if that someone is not impressed, sexual harassment could possibly result). Sometimes it is simply a matter of the worker's being motivated to earn money so as to spend it on the person of interest. Others are motivated in the workplace by the chance to meet someone in or through work who will satisfy sexual needs. Another special case involving sex as a motivator is that of an ambitious, aggressive spouse (usually a wife) who pushes the mate on in a career. Whatever, there is no doubt that concerns about sex (and sexuality) are on the minds of workers each and every day and that they are strong motivators.

Implications for Administrative Practice

There are implications of the money/fun/sex theory of motivation both for administrators personally and vis-a-vis their employees. Firstly, the administrator should reflect on the answer to the question, "What motivates me?" He or she may just discover that it is more money, fun, or sex than the more sophisticated ideas of people like Maslow and Herzberg. This revelation provides insight to the administrator. The active choice of attractive secretaries is a case in point.

Bennis (1968) presents a concept of effective leadership for the future. He suggests that it embraces four important kinds of competence: (1) knowledge of large, complex human systems; (2) practical theories of guiding these systems, theories that encompass methods for the seeding, nurturing, and integrating of individuals and groups; (3) interpersonal competence, particularly the sensitivity to understand the effects of one's own behaviour on others and how one's own personality shapes one's particular leadership style and value system; and (4) a set of values and competences that enables one to know when to confront and attack, if necessary, and when to support and provide the psychological safety so necessary for growth (p.122). The administrator can address these four items through a better understanding of what really motivates him or her personally. It is often said that a top manager must have a strong ego; associated with such ego development, I believe, is the manager's being motivated by M/F/S.

An appreciation of the money/fun/sex motivation theory for employees, aids with respect to such competencies as mentioned by Bennis.

This is not to say that an administrator should provide only fun, sex promise, and money in a direct, raw form as work rewards. Better that the person in charge recognize that these three things are what are often foremost in employees' minds and not assume that responsibility, challenging work, and so on are the most important motivators in the 1980s, though they are important. There really are many people these days who follow the philosophy of "I am here for a good time, not a long time." The general speed of life and rapidity of change are contributing factors. The wise manager will recognize the potential of the fun and sex influences to decrease efficiency if they provide too much of a distraction.

Practical examples of what an employer can do are to offer salaries which are viewed as being very fair (especially as compared to salaries in other occupations), and to make sure that workers have pleasant staffroom facilities where members of both sexes can meet together in comfort, and practice being light-hearted when the opportunity presents itself. In the specific case of school administrators, they should work toward taking the threat out of evaluation of their teachers, which so often exists, to help their staff enjoy the work more.

It is correct that older and more experienced employees can be motivated by things in addition to money, fun, and sex. Such things as challenge and prestige in the job can be very important. Also, married employees might be viewed as having their fun and sex needs, especially, much more satisfied than when they were unmarried workers. In fact many employer-administrators purposely hire married people, believing them to be more stable, reliable, and committed, and generally better for the work situation. Of course these employees will probably want more money. Interestingly, even married workers, much more than they did years ago, are refusing promotions to more responsible positions, preferring to avoid the headaches and to have more time for family and other pursuits (see Greiff and Munter, 1981).

The administrator can use all these insights to be a more effective performer. Understanding human motivators and how they operate at different points in one's working career assists in decisions about such major items as time management and delegation of responsibilities. Finally, I believe this understanding helps the administrator to appreciate the need for a "mentor system" of identifying potential leaders among one's subordinates and grooming them for succession to the top positions in the future, and how to put such a system into operation. This idea is important, and is elaborated in such sources as Levinson's *The Seasons of Man's Life* (1979, p.97) and Pascale and Athos' *The Art of Japanese Management* (1982, p.134).

When all is said and done, what really motivates workers has always been and will always be a crucial issue for dedicated leaders of orga-

nizations. The idea of how not to lose one's motivation over the years is an especially important topic for future discussion and writing.

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Chapter 7

Educational Administration and the Real World:

or "Cakes and Ale" Education Style

> "*. . . if the proper study of mankind is man, it is evidently more sensible to occupy yourself with the coherent, substantial, and significant creatures of fiction, than with the irrational and shadowy figures of real life.*"
>
> —Somerset Maugham: *Cakes and Ale*, p.137

In modern times, education and the managing of education are thought to be very complex things. A main contributing factor is the high expectation society has for what educational institutions are to do. There are so many expectations, varying from teaching the basics, to training for jobs, to the disciplining of youngsters which should be done at home. As a result, educational administrators have adopted a variety of "coping behaviours," many of which eventually cause burnout. This article is concerned about the fact that, under stress, many administrators act in ways that, in general, fail to win the respect of employees and others as they see the real world.

Typical Behaviour

There are many types of behaviour, common among educational administrators, which I believe are out of step with the world as it really is. For instance, many leaders once in power, assume that they are entitled to control the lives of their employees, telling them what they can and cannot do. These workers are mature adults. The reality is that these people have good brains, most are well meaning, and if dealt with co-operatively and not spoken down to will usually do well and be responsible. It takes a psychologically strong leader to make his employees feel of worth.

> *. . . all of the characters that we create are but copies of ourselves. (Cakes and Ale, p.7)*

Many educational administrators are sacrificing their family life for their demanding jobs. Evening meetings and weekend "retreats" are winning over time spent with spouse and children. In the real world a good husband makes sacrifices to be with his family, and he sets his priorities accordingly.

Gimmicks are used by administrators in education who want to be widely popular. For example, some are known as "fantastic" because they remember everyone's name - the school superintendent greets each from the lowly kindergarten teacher to the colleague of equal status as if he were a very close friend. But looks are deceiving. As this superintendent walks down the hall with a particular school principal friend he may, out of the side of his mouth, be asking pertinent questions about the teacher he spots ahead. "What's her name? Her class? Do you remember the last time I saw her?" And then - "Ruth Smith, so nice to see you again! Why, I believe it has been about two years since I last saw you. How is your five-year-old kindergarten class?" This impresses the teacher, but in the real world people do not grasp names for this purpose, simply because one does not want or need to remember everyone.

> *". . . after a few foolish remarks I left him."*
> *(Cakes and Ale, p.167)*

The gimmick may be cute and effective but it is unnatural and burdens the mind with excess information.

Contemporary educational executives accept and promote insecurity within the education culture too much. An example is the practice of term or sessional appointments of teaching staff and of administrators themselves. In the real world, people need a sense of security, support, and belonging to be productive and effective. Term appointments very quickly create insecurity, paranoia, feelings of aging, and poor health in employees, and this can detract from the overall quality of the education being provided.

"Reverence for old age is one of the most admirable traits of the human race. (Cakes and Ale, p.92)"

Many educational administrators are "letting themselves go" too much. Physically, mentally, and morally a great number are on the decline. They suffer executive stress and drink too much, and the males often start chasing women indiscreetly. It is not uncommon to hear that in some school systems women supposedly advance by having affairs with a particular senior administrator. The idea of the leader's setting an example does not seem very prevalent. Max Weber, in his "ideal type" of bureaucracy, emphasized the need for a leader to maintain a social distance between himself and his workers - to conduct his office in a spirit of "formalistic impersonality." Granted, Weber was extreme in this view but many contemporary managers have totally dismissed this suggestion and suffer for it. In the real world, employees want their leaders to be excellent examples, not to "let themselves go."

". . . longevity is genius. (Cakes and Ale, p.93)"

Some Suggestions

Basically, I feel that there is a need for many more excellent educational administrators than we currently have. And I fully recognize that I must appear both cynical and idealistic to make my point. We should expect to have men and women of honesty, decency, and integrity in positions of leadership. Gentlemen and ladies are required. I feel that many with these qualities decide not to pursue administrative careers when they come to realize how bad the contemporary leadership culture is. Following are some practical suggestions for how it could become much more attuned with the real world as many see it:

•educational administrators must remember what ultimately "it is all about" - the interests of students and teachers in classrooms - and decisions should be made with these interests as the highest priority. Young children especially are a precious quantity.

•educational administrators must personally develop, to like themselves without being overly selfish, to be confident in themselves, and generally to be "strong" individuals. Only then can they really interact effectively with all the interest groups in education. Leaders need to stop trying to "do" things to other people (Bereiter, 1972); they need to be robust enough to create conditions in which subordinates will do good things on their own. I am not denying that at times an administrator must be firm and apply some discipline.

> *"A little of what you fancy does you good".*
> *(Cakes and Ale, p.181)*

Enoch's notion of leading versus managing is appropriate here. He distinguishes between a desirable "transformational leadership" style and a competent, but less desirable, "transactional leadership" style. The need today is for administrators who are capable of courageous acts.

•educational administrators need to be realistic, decent, "salt of the earth" type people. Not scoundrels; not power-trippers; not political animals (in the true sense of the word). Perhaps in other sectors of society some of these entities are useful, but they are not suitable in universal education. The humane educational leader will appreciate that people need support, that they get older, and that health deteriorates in time. He or she will also know that adult individuals live with some degree of pain all the time. He or she will also know that adult individuals live with some degree of pain all the time, and that things are difficult enough for them without unnecessary or unreasonable pressures from the person for whom they work. Basic respect for others is what we are talking about. Everyone has problems, and problems should bring people together. There is little room for such things as macho images, little-boy mentalities, and administrators who are "legends in their own minds."

> *"The fact is, one grows out of people, and the only thing is to face it." (Cakes and Ale, p.17)*

It might be helpful if administrators would read the great literary works to increase their sensitivities.

•many administrators try to fool themselves. They carry on with a satisfactory style on some fronts, for example in dealing with the public, yet follow a conspiracy style among colleagues behind closed doors. In time many break down trying to handle too much in too many ways. They should take better care of themselves - take restful holidays to recharge, groom young, capable subordinates to replace them as leaders in the future (a mentor system); above all, they need to have a sense of humour.

> *"I've had my time and I'm ready to call it a day." (Cakes and Ale, p.190)*

Final Comment

Traditionally, when we discuss disparities between educational administration and the real world, we tend to emphasize the gap between administrative theory/training and administrative practice. Often training programs are criticized for their irrelevance. In this article I have presented other kinds of disparity. Perhaps readers will reflect on what I have said and use it to work in their own way towards great gains in the effectiveness of leadership in education. The real world cannot be denied, and "What's wrong with the real world, anyway?"

> ***"It may be that another generation, accommodating itself more adequately to the stress of life, will look for inspiration not in a flight from reality, but in an eager acceptance of it." (Cakes and Ale, p.91)***

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Chapter 8

The Path Analysis Technique in Educational Research:

Bridging the Theory-Empiricism Gap

The path analysis technique was introduced in educational research relatively recently. It is very effective for conceptualizing research and for linking theory and the "real world". Major advances are possible if more researchers in education would adopt this technique. However, the outward complex appearance of path analysis diagrams with their many variables, straight and curved arrows and numerical coefficients, and the terminology such as "residuals" and "recursive" associated with discussions of the technique tend to deter researchers. In this article the author gives an overview of the technique in simple terms. Its strengths and weaknesses are discussed and suggestions are made about how to commence use of the technique. Several examples of path analysis used in educational research are presented. The discussion is of an introductory nature with the hope that readers will develop a confidence to investigate the technique further. The intention of the author here is not to debate the many specific, provocative and complex issues about definition, terminology and interpretation surrounding the technique which methodology specialists continue to discuss as the use of the technique grows.

THE BASICS OF THE TECHNIQUE

The technique of path analysis is finding increasing use in social science research. Basically the technique provides a handy way of "drawing and testing a picture of one's research milieu."

The variables in the research are placed on a page in a time sequence from left to right as the researcher thinks they logically enter into the milieu. If groups of variables are thought to enter in at the same time they are placed in a vertical line position. Spacing of variables across and down the page is done arbitrarily so that crowding is avoided.

Variables at the very beginning of the diagram – usually just a few appear – are called exogenous (meaning "predetermined or starting") variables and all those following these are called endogenous (meaning "dependent on another") variables. Straight line arrows are placed running down or up (and sometimes on an angle) toward each of the endogenous variables to represent causal effects from variables not included in the diagram; these variables are not included normally because they are not part of the researcher's theory; they are called residual variables.

Below is a typical path analysis diagram constructed as described above:

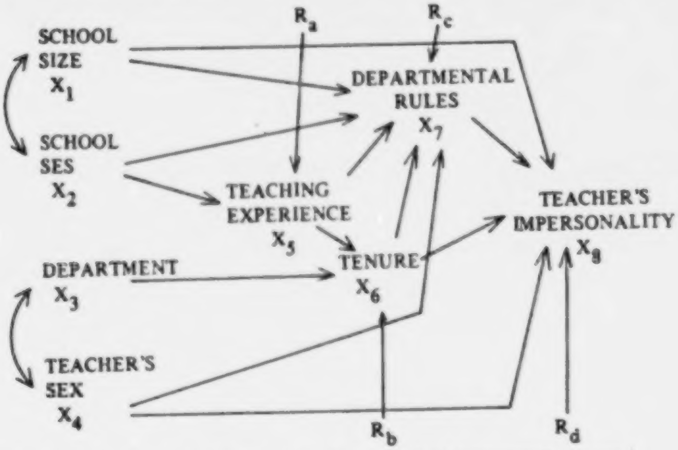


Figure 1. Path model relating bureaucratic rules to teachers' impersonality scores.[1]

With this diagram the researcher has provided an interpretation of what is about to be studied. Three general assumptions are made: relationships among variables are linear and additive; a causal order among variables is known; and the relationships among variables are causally closed. The assumption about causal order is represented by the direction of arrows in the diagram. Causal closure refers to covariation between two variables being independent of outside influence. The assumption of causal closure is indicated by the absence of certain paths drawn to or from variables considered as a pair.

The next step is to form interval scales of measurement for all diagram variables. In other words, variables are to be measured on an increasing scale which has equidistance between pairs of successive points. This is needed because path analysis examines how unit changes in particular variables change other variables. Sometimes percentile transformations of data are done or dummy variables are employed to obtain the interval scale.

Through a series of multiple regressions taking the endogenous variables in turn as the dependent variable and all preceding variables running arrows into that dependent variable as independent variables, standardized partial regression coefficients are produced. These are positive or negative and have values between 0 and 1. Each is termed a path coefficient and is placed along and above the straight arrow (path) to which it corresponds in the diagram. The coefficient produced for a particular independent variable corresponds to the path running from that independent variable to the dependent variable of the regression run. Other output from the regression run includes first-order correlation coefficients and the multiple correlation coefficient (R). Along and to the left of each curved arrow on the path analysis diagram is placed the correlation coefficient corresponding to the two variables joined. Each residual path coefficient is calculated by $\sqrt{1-R^2}$. This formula is derived from the regression structural equations, and the coefficient calculated measures the effect of all unmeasured variables not included in the model that cause variation in the endogenous variable.

Following is the example of Figure 1 completed with coefficients

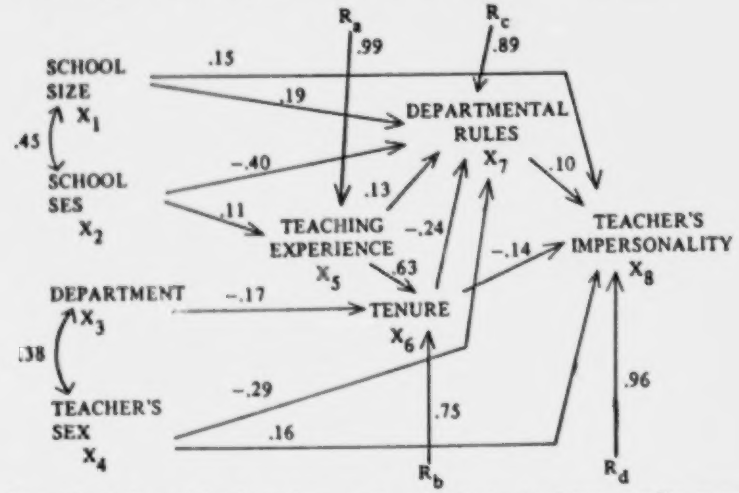


Figure 2. Path model relating bureaucratic rules to teachers' impersonality scores (completed).

The calculated path coefficients indicate the direction and strength of hypothesized relationships. Placing all types of coefficients on corresponding diagram paths represents linking theory to reality (measured mathematically) or abstract to concrete. Mathematically squaring a path coefficient and then multiplying by 100 yields the percentage of variability in the dependent or effective variable accounted for by the cause variable in the researcher's study; then doing this for the residual coefficient related to that dependent variable yields the percentage of variability in that dependent variable accounted for by all variables not included in the diagram. Squaring a correlation coefficient attached to a curved doubleheaded arrow yields basically the percentage of variability in one variable explained by the other.

Each path coefficient is called a *direct effect*. An *indirect effect* from a particular variable through a variable (or variables) to a final variable is calculated by multiplying direct effects "along the way" in succession. A direct effect is statistically significant if it is at least twice its standard error (standard error is calculated using data from the computer regression output; standard error Beta_1 = standard error B_1/standard deviation X_1). A total causal effect of one variable on another is the sum of the direct causal effect and the indirect causal effect(s). Indirect effects usually are examined in terms of what percentage of total covariation between a cause and effect variable (i.e., as measured by the correlation coefficient) they account for.

In social science research using path analysis, variance explained in a dependent variable in the diagram upwards of 30% would be considered a very good result. Often a good variance explained result is accompanied by statistically significant direct effects on the dependent variable, but not necessarily so. It is important to remember that statistical significance depends on sample size and variable sample variances.

Following is a table format which is useful for recording calculations in path analysis.

Table 1. A General Decomposition Table for Path Analysis Results[a]

		Causal			
Bivariate relationship	Total covariance [or correlation] (*A*)	Direct (*B*)	Indirect (*C*)	Total (*D*) *B* + *C*	Noncausal [or residual] (*E*) *A* − *D*
X_3X_4	r_{34}	r_{34}	None	r_{34}	None
X_2X_4	r_{24}	r_{24}	$P_{34}(P_{23})$	r_{24}	None
X_1X_4	r_{14}	P_{14}	$P_{34}(P_{23})(P_{12})$ $+ P_{24}(P_{12})$ $+ P_{34}(P_{13})$	r_{14}	None
X_2X_3	r_{23}	P_{23}	None	P_{23}	$r_{23} - P_{23}$
X_1X_3	r_{13}	P_{13}	$P_{23}(P_{12})$	$B_{13.4}$	$r_{13} - B_{13.4}$
X_1X_2	r_{12}	P_{12}	None	P_{12}	$r_{12} - P_{12}$

An alternative is to use tables like the following two which together are less comprehensive than the one above (the numbers in these two tables correspond to the example in Figure 2). In table 3 total effects or zero-order correlations have been partitioned into direct, indirect, and joint or spurious effects. Discussion of what these tabular results mean in simple language appears later in this article.

Table 2. Multiple Correlations and Standardized Partial Regression Coefficients[3]

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Multiple Correlation Coefficient	Standardized Partial Regression Coefficient	Standard Error
Impersonality	Rules	.29	.10	.10
	Tenure		-.14	.10
	Sex		.16	.10
	School Size		.15	.10
Rules	Tenure	.46	-.24	.13
	Experience		.13	.13
	Sex		-.29	.10
	Socioeconomic Status		-.40	.12
	School Size		.19	.11
Tenure	Experience	.66	.63	.11
	Department		-.17	.09
Experience	Socioeconomic Status	.11	.11	.10

Table 3. Contribution of Variables to the Teacher's Impersonality Score[4]

Variable	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect through Other Variables	Joint or Spurious Effect
Rules	.08	.10	-	-.02
Tenure	-.17	-.14	-.02	-.01
Experience	-.07	.00	-.08	.01
Sex	.15	.16	-.03	.02
Department	.06	.00	.02	.04
Socioeconomic Status	.08	.00	-.05	.13
School Size	.16	.15	.02	-.01

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF THE TECHNIQUE

The strengths of using the path analysis technique are several. It is a method for tracing out the implications of a set of causal assumptions which the researcher is willing to impose upon a system of relationships – thus it provides interpretation and description. It forces an internal consistency, "awareness of the ambiguities in sociological thinking".[5] Further, the technique enables criticism to be sharply focused not only on the interpretation at hand but also on the conduct of future inquiry. Also, researchers, with the underlying research framework soundly set, are able to turn more attention to the improvements of measurement, sampling, and inference. Finally, path analysis permits the researcher to actually empirically verify theories, thus bridging the theory-empiricism gap.

The major weaknesses of the technique pertain to how it can be abused. There are basic definitions, assumptions and procedures implicit to the use of path analysis and these must be adhered to if the technique is to be valid. In recent years several studies have appeared in which there are path analysis diagrams more elaborate than usual. Variations such as use of ordinal measures on variables,[6] employment of induced and block variables,[7] and splitting of path analysis diagrams on the basis of time[8] have appeared. As well there has been experimentation with models incorporating feedback and reciprocal causation.[9]

Path analysis is attractive because it can bring order in research and superficially it might appear easy to employ [i.e., just draw lines (paths) from variable to variable]. The danger is that individuals will not use it properly. Some research contains path analysis models with so many added features – blocking, splitting, etc. – used in such a way that it is very difficult to actually assess whether definitions, assumptions and procedures in the technique are being applied rigourously. In these cases more explanation should be provided by the researcher.

Another weakness of the technique is that, strictly speaking, variables must be capable of being measured validly in an interval scale. Lastly, some people see path analysis as oversimplifying reality and consider this a weakness.

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS

There are many particular features, problems and special terminologies associated with "really getting into" path analysis. For instance, as aforementioned, in recent years researchers have been "blocking" variables with common properties in diagrams and some have been breaking large diagrams down into subdiagrams according to certain criteria in order to do more detailed analysis.[10]

Further, selecting, ordering, measuring variables so that more than trivial (obvious) relationships are established poses a challenge. As well, when path analysis is performed on sample data and the findings are to be generalized to a population, sampling variability considerations enter in; in certain cases the use of unstandardized partial regression coefficients rather than standardized ones is appropriate.[11]

Another problem is that there is inconsistency in how indirect effects in path analysis are calculated. An indirect effect being defined in terms of the difference between the correlation coefficient and direct effects has led to ambiguous and inconsistent interpretations of indirect effects across various studies. Finney[12] argues that only those paths which can be traced through intervening variables should be included in the indirect effect term so that we can talk in terms of indirect *causal* effects.

Lastly, path analysis diagrams can be constructed so as to include feedback loops and reciprocal causations among variables. This necessitates a quite complex mathematical procedure for "identification" of equations. Path analysis diagrams of these types are called non-recursive diagrams; they are not discussed in this article. Recursive diagrams are the ones discussed.

EXAMPLES OF PATH ANALYSIS IN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Path analysis originally was conceived by Sewall Wright[13] in the 1920's for application in the biological sciences, later was adopted for use in economics by people like Johnston,[14] and just over a decade ago was introduced to the social sciences by Otis Dudley Duncan.[15]

In recent years the technique has been used in educational research. For example, Duncan examines Turner's study of determinants of youth aspirations.[16] Williams[17] and Gilbert[18] research students' educational aspirations using path analysis. Hanks and Eckland,[19] using separate high school and college diagrams, assess the role of the extracurricular program in the educational attainment process. Hall[20] investigates determinants of sport socialization for women using a path analysis model with several education variables. And Taylor[21] researches family environments and educational abilities. Below is a diagram used by Lawton and To[22] in their research on client use of a computerized educational information system:

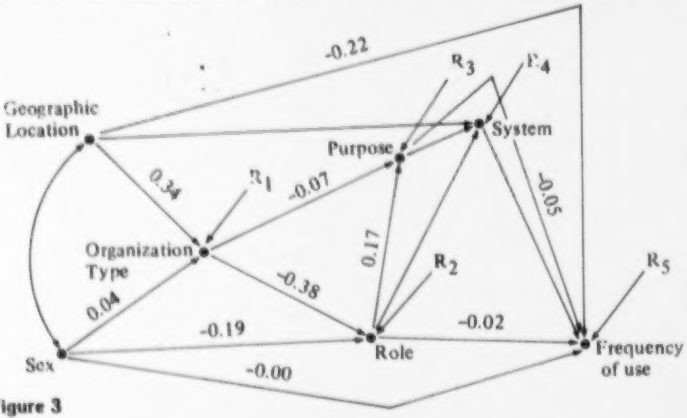


Figure 3

To understand better how this technique is applied, the example concerning bureaucratic rules and teachers' impersonality presented earlier in this paper is now discussed in more detail. The following is a modified account of the discussion which explains the path analysis diagram of the original source:[23]

> A study by Gouldner and the writings of Merton suggest that bureaucratic rules may affect the personalities of individual members of an organization in such a way as to result in an impersonal attitude toward clients or, in the case of the school, students. Organizations, however, differentially utilize rules to control

> behaviour of subordinates. In the schools, tenured teachers and the more experienced teachers are subject to fewer rules regarding instructional practices. Bureaucratic rules and impersonal treatment of students have been found to be more prevalent in large schools and in schools that enrol large numbers of lower class students. Terrien and Mills, in a study of California public school districts also found that bureaucracy, as measured by the proportion of personnel engaged in administrative activities, increased with the size of the organization. Moreover, the more experienced, tenured teachers on the whole prefered to teach in schools that enroll the majority of their students from middle class families. Also female teachers and teachers of English were found to make more of an attempt to personalize instruction than their colleagues. While both groups of teachers are more experienced on the whole than other teachers, they were found to be subject to a greater number of constraints in the form of instructional rules.

From this account the reader can understand the causal structure of the path analysis diagram as it appears in Figure 1 of this article.

The following is a modified account of Anderson and Evans's original discussion of the results from data analysis:

> The parameters of the structural equations underlying the diagram were estimated from data obtained from 114 teachers of English and science in the public schools of a large eastern metropolitan area. [These parameters appear in Table 2 and Table 3 of this article.]
>
> Results of the analysis indicate that as hypothesized the degree of institutional control in the form of rules concerning classroom instruction affects the teacher's relationships with his students. As rules increase within a department, the teacher spends less time counseling individual students and adopts a more universalistic grading scheme, two of the components that make up the impersonality score.
>
> Tenure appears to have a negative direct effect on impersonality. Tenured teachers make a greater effort to personalize their teaching. On the whole they spend more time with individual students and are more particularistic in their grading practices. This effect is not due to experience since the main effect of teaching experience on the impersonality score is through tenure. Tenured teachers may feel more secure in dealing with students and with their superiors since they are not as frequently supervised and can only be dismissed for cause. Also a selection process has occurred by this time in a teacher's career that may also account for their greater tendency to individualize instruction.
>
> The teacher's sex also appears to affect the manner in which he deals with students. Male teachers on the whole are more impersonal in their treatment of students. Similarly the size of the school, as predicted, directly affects this variable. Teachers who are assigned to larger schools are more impersonal with students. Also larger schools are more bureaucratic with an attendant increase in impersonality. Such an effect may result, in large part, from the complexity of large schools offering several academic curricula and providing a large number of extracurricular activities for students. Other studies also suggest that it is complexity rather than size that accounts for increased bureaucracy.
>
> Interestingly enough, the socioeconomic composition of the school in which the teacher works affects the relationship established between teacher and student. Teachers of lower class students are subject to more instructional rules than their colleagues. The increased control of instruction in these schools appears to be

both a result of the lack of experience of teachers assigned to teach in lower class neighborhoods as well as a more direct result of attempts by school administrators to protect the school in this instance from outside interference."[64]

Referring to Figure 2, the residual effect (R_6) on tenure (X_6) is .75. Squaring this .75 and multiplying by 100 per cent yields 56.25%. This represents the percentage of variance in tenure which was not explained in the study by the variables in the path analysis diagram. Other residual effects in the diagram can be treated similarly.

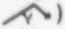
Noticeably, educational researchers are bringing increasing sophistication into the application of path analysis. But, again, they must be aware of potential abuses of the technique.

SOME GUIDELINES FOR CONSTRUCTING PATH ANALYSIS DIAGRAMS

Although there is considerable literature on path analysis there is very little written on how to construct clear, readable path analysis diagrams especially when many variables are to be involved. In this section some practical steps for construction of recursive (i.e., non-feedback, non-reciprocal causation) diagrams are presented. Some of the ideas were mentioned in a general way earlier in this article. The following sample diagram assists following with the points made:

Normally variable titles will require xerox reduction in order to fit neatly on the diagram.

A first step is to position the variables in a time sequence from left to right (the horizontal dimension) while giving arbitrary aesthetic spacing in the vertical dimension. The vertical dimension spacing will inevitably later be adjusted to accommodate path lines. Attempt to place variables which will have just a few paths leading to them at the upper or lower extremes of the whole diagram.

Next path lines are drawn. Drawing paths "over top" of variables (i.e., ) as wide as possible, instead of under variables is a good principle to follow. Overall this avoids too many lines crossing and keeps space clear in front of variables. As one proceeds, considerable anticipating of future paths to be entered is required. Arrowheads on one path should not be touching other path lines or arrowheads. Running paths parallel to one another as much as possible is useful.

In deciding where to cross path lines one should anticipate where eventually will be placed the path coefficients – it is suggested that generally path coefficients be placed above path lines, close to independent variable names and, where relevant, on elbows (or change of direction points) of paths.

The above are a few general suggestions. Ultimately the objective is to produce a diagram which is not too crowded for reader interpretation. In practice the developer of the diagram will find himself/herself making decisions about overall perspective of the particular diagram being constructed. For instance, angling of the paths (including residual paths)

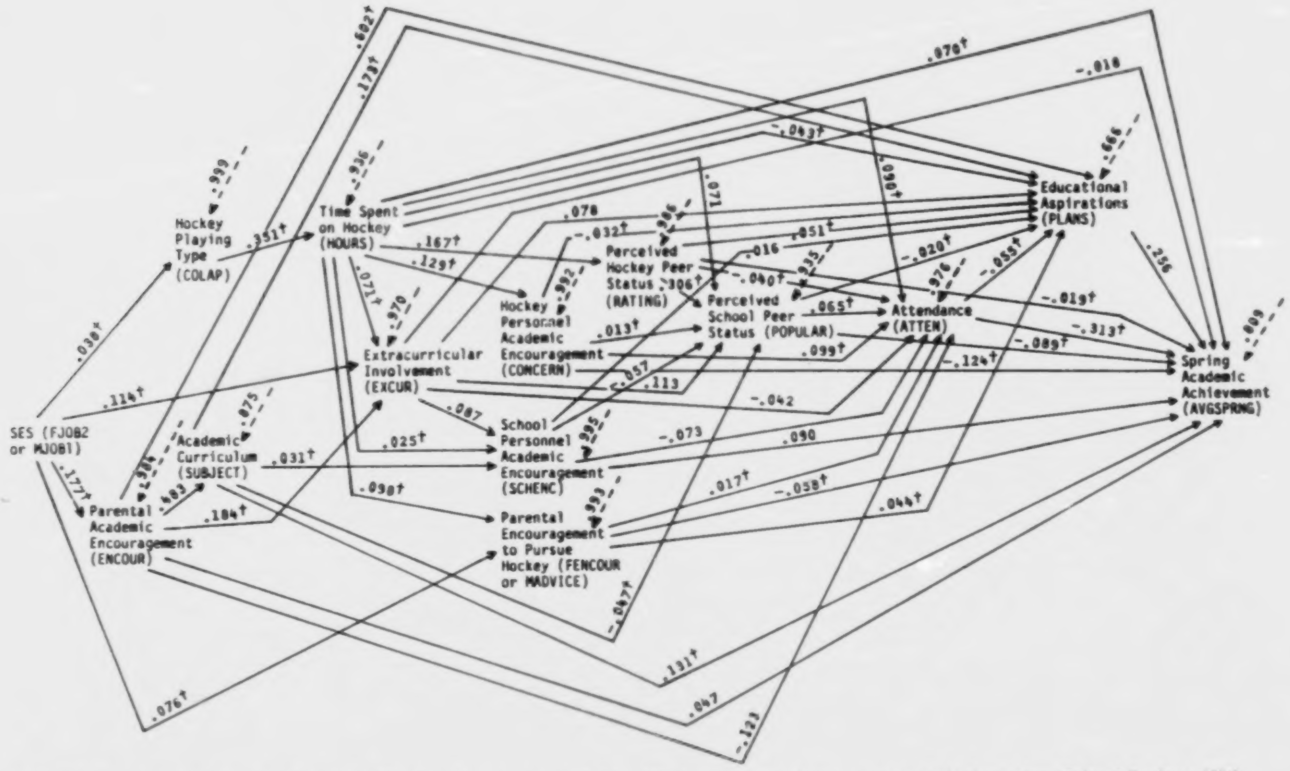

Hockey Playing Type (COLAP)
Time Spent on Hockey (HOURS)
Extracurricular Involvement (EXCUR)
Hockey Personnel Academic Encouragement (CONCERN)
Perceived Hockey Peer Status (RATING)
Perceived School Peer Status (POPULAR)
Attendance (ATTEN)
Educational Aspirations (PLANS)
Spring Academic Achievement (AVGSPRNG)
SES (FJOB2 or MJOB1)
Academic Curriculum (SUBJECT)
School Personnel Academic Encouragement (SCHENC)
Parental Academic Encouragement (ENCOUR)
Parental Encouragement to Pursue Hockey (FENCOUR or MADVICE)
.999
.936
.970
.992
.906
.935
.976
.666
.809
.075
.984
.995
.993
.602†
.178†
.351†
.038†
.114†
.177†
.403
.184†
.031†
.025†
.087
.098†
.076†
.167†
.129†
.071†
.078
-.032†
.013†
.306†
.057
.113
-.042
.016
.051†
-.040†
.065†
.099†
-.020†
-.055†
.071
.090†
-.043†
.070†
-.018
.256
-.019†
-.313†
-.089†
-.124†
-.073
.090
.017†
-.058†
.044†
-.047†
.131†
.047
-.123

Figure 4. Recursive Path Analysis Diagram of Hockey Participation and School Performance for Years 1 and 2 Male Secondary School Students With Path and Residual Coefficients Entered (n = 336).[88]

† – – coefficient is at least twice its standard error and thus statistically significant.

will require decision and as one enters paths one will find oneself generally just "looking for open space". Following the general suggestions presented above should provide more available open space.

Blocking of groups of variables and splitting larger, complex diagrams into several smaller ones for presentation are other techniques which can be employed.

Careful construction of path analysis diagrams avoids abuses and helps researchers to get maximum efficiency from the technique.

CONCLUSIONS

In this article the path analysis technique has been described with some examples and suggestions. The main assumptions and methods underlying the technique are summarized below:

a. weak causal order among variables drawing on theory, experience and time to display
b. relationships among variables causally closed, linear and additive
c. measurements on variables have interval scale properties
d. residual (non-causal, continuous) variables latent
e. identification of a set of regression equations from which coefficients are estimated using sample data
f. use of standardized partial regression coefficients (path coefficients) most common
g. total causal effect$_{AC}$ = direct causal effect$_{AC}$ + indirect causal effect$_{AC}$
h. total covariation$_{AC}$ = total causal effect$_{AC}$ + non-causal (residual) effect$_{AC}$
i. for $\underrightarrow{A \xrightarrow{x} B \xrightarrow{y} C}$, indirect effect A to C through B = xXy
j. no *demonstration* of causality

The technique is very useful in establishing both internal validity (i.e., sound logic in including variables and in causally connecting such variables) and external validity (i.e., valid generalizability of findings) in a research design as well as serving a general heuristic purpose. The approach broadens the scope of simple regression analysis. It is particularly applicable to contextual effects research in which a good number of variables are involved. A very thoughtful interpretation of data is possible.

Definitely some finer details of the technique have not been covered and the reader will find that much will be learned from actually trying the technique. Readers interested in more information and additional readings are welcome to contact the author.

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Chapter 9

Management of a Research Project:
An Important Priority[*]

Most textbooks on research design give excellent advice on such things as how to formulate a problem, develop an instrument, and control for extraneous effects. However, between getting the idea for a research topic and presenting the final report there are numerous management tasks which are often ignored. This article discusses the concept of proper management of a research project.

When the time comes to write the report, or even to discuss the development of the project with a supervisor or research committee, steps that were not recorded or were forgotten can lead to serious difficulties. Writing a report can be an awesome task when the information on procedures is not readily available or has not been maintained systematically.

Not everything needs to be copied from records into the final report, but it is better to select from all available information rather than to try to remember fragmented information about tasks long since completed. Some writers of research texts encourage the use of diaries or log-books. Both are fine. Diaries help to record day-to-day activities and help with the forward planning. Log-books are much the same and help in reviewing the sequential development of the projects.

Every researcher really needs to develop a system of documenting each step of the project. A simple but effective approach is to use a filing system. For large-scale projects this might require a cabinet large enough to hold many files in which documentation for different aspects of the study can be stored. The filing system can be as simple as a loose-leaf folder, with a blank page inserted at the beginning of each section on which to index the contents of that section.

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[*] **Originally published with P.E. Griffin as First author.**

The administration of a research project sometimes gets pushed to the background and becomes secondary to the theory, the collection of data, analysis, and report writing. Each of these steps, however, can easily be recorded by filing a short note, copies of correspondence, an instrument, program, or summary. Assign a code to a type of document, a sequential number to each entry, and the date on which the entry was made. This information, together with a title, should be entered in an index.

Types of documentation that might be useful are listed in Table 1. Each category is discussed more fully in the following pages, with a reminder to code each entry, file it, and enter a record in the category index. Instead of repeating these three instructions, the letters CFI are inserted in the text, meaning *Code, File, and Index.*

The list is not all-inclusive. Some projects will require other categories.

Theoretical Framework (and problem definition)

One of the first things a researcher does is develop the theoretical framework for the study. This involves the delimitation of major assumptions and implications of these assumptions. This leads to the statement of propositions which in turn may be restated as hypotheses and tested by making controlled or systematic observations. As each of these assumptions becomes clarified, the researcher needs to write them down, together with any implication and resultant proposition and/or hypothesis. These notes can be coded simply (TF001 for the first, TF002 for the second, and so on), dated, and filed under "Theoretical Framework" (CFI). The code and date, together with a few words of description, should then be entered on the index page, as in Table 2.

Reference Material

Every student or independent research worker tries to find similar relevant research studies, or reports that can be used to develop the problem statement and support the relevance of the study. Summaries of the salient points and complete bibliographical information need to be recorded - even a copy of the paper if possible.

The literature search may be conducted using a computer-based source such as ERIC or Dissertation Abstracts. Each of these requires an activity of some kind. Record the procedure used. Who was contacted? How was the search arranged? Is there a cost involved? What are the key terms used in conducting the search? How many relevant articles were found? Very little of this information would be included in a final report, or even in the appendixes, However, a record of the process will help the researcher *review all procedures* later on (CFI).

As each search is conducted, write a short description of the search, code and file the description, and enter it in your index (CFI). As each article, book, or report is read, write a brief summary of how it relates to your problem, what the findings were, the weakness and strengths of the study, and how your study may overcome the weaknesses, utilize the strengths, and extend the information gained from that study. Put all bibliographical information in the summary, code, file, and index it. In this way a systemic file of all your reference material can be developed (CFI).

Correspondence

Almost no research project is complete without some correspondence. Keep copies of all letters written. Code your letters with reference numbers, starting with CO/001, Jan. '83. The person with whom you are corresponding will generally quote your reference number in the reply. Then both letter and answer can be filed under the same code number. Stray pieces of paper and letters tend to get lost eventually. Make a copy (CFI). Referring to the filing system later is easier than trying to remember what was in your own letter when the reply comes back, or trying to remember both letters later when a review of the project is necessary.

Instrumental Development

If the study involves the development of a questionnaire, interview schedule, observation schedule, or test, the instrument usually goes through several stages of revision. Sometimes an instrument from another study is used, with modifications to make it more suitable for the local study. It is essential that the development or modification of the instrument is documented. Keep a copy of each draft (CFI). The instrument development index should then look something like Table 4.

It may not take as long or as many drafts as shown above but the total development of your data-collecting instrument (or instruments) is then documented.

Data Collection

This process requires many steps but ends with a one- or two-paragraph description in the report. Students new to conducting research will not learn much about the process of data collection by reading research articles or even textbooks about survey administration, experimental design, or other texts dealing with clinical or observational studies. The population has to be defined, and sampling procedure and design decided upon. All these topics are well covered in texts, and have to be reported. The researcher should therefore document each of them as each step is completed. Write down the definitions, and list the sampling frame (or its source). Write out a detailed description of the sampling design and procedure (CFI).

All these steps are essential but none of them actually leads directly to gathering observational information - the basis of the research study. Almost invariably, gathering information involves the co-operation of people. Authorities, such as school principals, have to be contacted and their co-operation is sought. File an additional copy of your correspondence in the data-collection file if it is related to gathering data (CFI). Times have to be set to meet with people; procedures have to be agreed upon for gathering data. *Record* all your contacts and agreements (CFI). Don't overlook even the simplest step in going from the final instrument development to having the instruments completed.

Outline the procedure for gathering your data. Include notes on: Who was observed? Where? For How Long? What problems were encountered? How were the problems solved? Were all the expected people present? How many did not complete the task or instrument? Is this a serious problem for your research design? What can you do about it? Record all your procedures, observations, and solutions to problems encountered (CFI).

Although the final report does not need to contain *all* the details, you will have a very sound basis for reporting the exact method used in collecting observations for your study.

Data Preparation, and Coding

The term "data analysis" tends to suggest that numbers have been collected is some form, and that the research must involve considerable statistical computation or computer analysis. This is not necessarily true. Consider both extremes. It may be that qualitative rather than quantitative data are to be obtained and that the research is to be based on written records.

If the data are non-numerical, some system still has to be developed for synthesizing the information. How this is done should still be written down *before* the collection and synthesis of information take place. This will help to systemize your research - and the hallmark of good research is the systematic way in which observations are made. It should be replicable.

If the data are numerical, that is if tests, questionnaires, and so on are used, then there are quite a number of steps to take before all the answers from instruments lead to the "correlation coefficient" or the "regression equation" or the "significance test" pursued. Each of the steps should be recorded (CFI). In fact, some of the recording becomes part of your report. For example, even before the instrument is administered a code book should be developed. This describes each question. An example of two common questionnaire items is given together with *code-book* entry (Table 5).

Note the following about the code-book information:

a) An instrument number is given. Sometimes more than one group of subjects is studied. For example, teachers may be given one questionnaire and the students another. Since two separate instruments are used, each should be assigned a unique code.

b) The question number is always included.

c) A card number is assigned. Although computer cards are seldom used now, coding sheets are still printed as if the 80 column computer cards still existed. Data are therefore still recorded in what is coded Card-image (80 digits per line). If direct scan sheets are used this may not apply.

The term "Record" might be used instead of "Card". It is sometimes necessary to use more than one line on a coding form to record the answers from a single respondent. Hence note the card or record on which the data are coded.

d) *Column Numbers:* anticipate the maximum possible number of digits in a numerical answer to an open-ended question such as No. 8 in Table 5. No teacher could have more than 99 years of teaching experience (even though some of them feel as though they have had more!). It is expected, though, that many teachers would have sufficient experience to require a double-digit answer. Note that the question asks for whole years; often when one develops a code book it appears that the respondent may give fractional answers. How many columns do you allocate for that? It is better to restrict the type of response? If so, allocate two columns. If not, anticipate the number of digits for a fractional answer. In this way the code-book development can often help in preparing the question, and in anticipating possible problems in the wording of specific items in the data collection instrument. The second example (No.9) is a "forced choice" question, with only five alternatives. These are usually coded by using the numbers 1 through 5. Hence only one column is needed.

e) *Variable*: in order to process the data, each question becomes a variable. To facilitate data processing, each variable is given a short, but descriptive, name. Sometimes it is convenient to describe them as V1, V2, V3, and so on, but this is not at all expressive of the nature of the variable.
Include in this section a brief summary of the question.

f) *Response*: in this column list or describe all the possible responses. It is not possible or necessary to list "1–one year," "2–two years," and so on, from open-ended questions. Simply list the range of allowed response values. Record the meaning, however, of each forced choice. Reserve the numbers 9, 99, and 999 for one-, two,- and three-digit answers, respectively, as "missing" data, that is, where the respondent does not complete the question or task.

Keep the code book in your filing system (CFI). It will be essential when the initial stages of your data-auditing procedures are being conducted. The code book then becomes a description of the data collected.
Data preparation also involves checking that the numbers prepared either on cards or on magnetic disk or tape are exactly the same as the responses written on to the data-collection instruments. The code book can be used as a guide to transfer the answers on to coding sheets and then keyed into the computer. In some studies, the data are entered directly into the computer from the test or questionnaire. It depends on how the instrument is designed. In either case, write out a brief description of how the data were transferred from the instrument to the computer (CFI). The data now have to be audited. Are the numbers stored in the computer an accurate record of the answers given by the respondents to the test, questionnaire, or interview?
Different procedures are available for auditing the data. Some researchers painstakingly study a line-by-line listing of the data on computer file. This may be appropriate for small studies. Others examine frequency distributions of each variable and check that only the allowed numbers (as set out in the code book) appear in the data. Any appropriate data are checked and, if necessary, corrected. Whatever the procedure used, write a short summary of all procedures (CFI).
The data-preparation index should then resemble Table 6.

Data Analysis

In many projects the amount of computer print-out becomes very large indeed. Each job run on the computer adds to the evergrowing pile of paper. In complex studies, several people may work on the same data base, and it sometimes happens that the same computer analyses are conducted over and over.

This is wasteful of time and resources. Record every analysis conducted. Write a summary of the result (CFI), and label and store the print-out. Even the one-person project needs this type of recording.

In a well-planned study it is possible to write the computer programs even before the data are entered into the computer. The program listings should also be recorded and filed (CFI). They are not necessary for the report, however. A record of the program, together with appropriate summaries of why the analysis was conducted and what hypothesis was being tested, should be kept. The mathematical model of the analysis, if that is appropriate, will make the task of writing the report so much easier. It also makes the job of reviewing the study much simpler, and helps to identify areas which might have been overlooked. The index to the data-analysis file might look something like Table 7.

Budget Details

Keep a record of all expenses associated with the study and file the invoices and receipts (CFI). Even if the study has not been funded by an external source, this practice helps the new research worker develop concepts of budgeting for future attempts at gaining research grants. In some areas such expenses may form the basis for taxation claims. Budget details are always important. It may surprise the new researcher to find out how much the project has cost and even inspire some to try harder to produce a worthwhile piece of writing to justify the expense incurred (CFI). For experienced researchers, budgets can be divided into various sections such as computer time, stationery, postage, typing, materials, printing, and so on. The coding for each item then might reflect the category as in Table 8 (PR=Printing, ST=Stationery, PQ=Postage).

Meeting Records

In almost every research project people other than the investigator are involved in decision-making. For a student there is usually a supervisor from the college or university - for larger projects an advisory committee is usually established. Each discussion with the supervisor or committee should be carefully recorded. It would also be prudent to check the accuracy of these records with others involved and then to provide a copy of the verified records before subsequent meetings. This would help all parties concerned to keep abreast of developments in the study. Those whose role is to advise or approve steps taken cannot always be as familiar with the study and its difficulties as the investigator.

Records of meetings, discussions with the supervisors, and so on keep all parties informed of tasks assigned, problems, solutions, and general progress. Code each record or memorandum so that others may refer to a specific document during meetings and discussions. Keep copies of all records and memoranda circulated to others involved in the study management. The coding and documentation of the records could resemble those in Table 9.

Assistance

Almost every project involves more than the principal investigator - the one who is primarily responsible for the study. It may be that the data are coded by a friend and key-punched by a commercial company, that the printing is done by a commercial printer, and the typing is done professionally. In every case the researcher has to give detailed and very specific instructions to the other party. Always write out the instructions completely. Never rely on oral explanations, as people often misunderstand or neglect small but very important points. It will save a great deal of anxiety if the procedures are written out and practiced (or simulated) by the researcher before someone else is given the job. Give a copy of the written instructions to the other person and keep a copy on file (CFI). If the study is complex and involves the organization of several assistants even the researcher may get confused about who was supposed to do what. A record of all instructions given to assistants with the projects helps to identify unclear procedures and problems and provides further documentary evidences of all steps taken. The index of assistance received many resemble Table 10.

Summary

In this article, the point is being made that attention to the management of one's research project is very important. Suggestions are made as to how to manage a project effectively including the setting up of information files ranging from "Theoretical Framework" to "Budget Details."

If the suggestions have been followed, the researcher should now have a record of every step taken in administering the project. All references, assumptions, hypotheses, data collection, and analysis are recorded. Most of the research report can then be directly drawn from the files. All that is now left are the discussion and the writing of conclusions.

Tables

TABLE 1: CATEGORIES FOR DOCUMENTING A STUDY

Category	Code
Theoretical Framework	TF001 – TFnnn
Reference Material	RM001 – RMnnn
Correspondence	CO001 – COnnn
Instrument Development	ID001 – IDnnn
Data Collection	DC001 – DCnnn
Data Preparation	DP001 – DPnnn
Coding Data	CD001 – CDnnn
Data Analysis	DA001 – DAnnn
Budget Details	BD001 – BDnnn
Meeting Records	MR001 – MRnnn
Assistance	AS001 – ASnnn

TABLE 2: INDEX – THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Code	Entry	Date
TF001	Assumptions regarding extraneous variables	Jan. '83
•	•	•
•	•	•
•	•	•

TABLE 3: INDEX – REFERENCE

Code	Entry	Date
RM001	Details of computer search	Jan. '83
RM002	Research report – Gunte J. (summary)	Jan. '83
RM003	•	•
•	•	•
•	•	•
Code	•	•

TABLE 4: INDEX – INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT

Code	Entry	Date
ID001	Types of question needed	Jan. '83
ID002	Draft 1 of questionnaire	Jan. '83
ID003	Changes needed in Draft 1	Feb. '83
ID004	Draft 2 of questionnaire	Feb. '83
ID005	Try-out of Draft 2	Feb. '83
ID006	Problems identified in Draft 2	Feb. '83
ID007	Changes to Draft 2	Feb. '83
ID008	Draft 3 of questionnaire	Feb. '83
.	.	.
.	.	.
.	.	.
ID999	Final, printed instrument	July '83

TABLE 5: CODEBOOK ENTRIES FOR EXAMPLE QUESTIONS

Instrument	Q No	Card	Col	Variable Name	Response
1	8	1	27,28	FLTXP Full-time experience	number 99 no answer
1	9	1	29	QUIET Good, quiet pupil	1 Strongly disagree 2 Disagree 3 Undecided 4 Agree 5 Strongly agree 9 No response

TABLE 6: INDEX – DATA PREPARATION

Code	Entry	Date
DP001	Code book – teacher instrument	Jan. '83
DP002	Code book – student instrument	Jan. '83
DP003	Coding sheets – data preparation	July '83
DP004	Transferring data to computer	Aug. '83
DP005	Data auditing procedures	Aug. '83
DP006	Data editing and correction procedures	Aug. '83

TABLE 7: INDEX DATA ANALYSIS

Code	Entry	Date
DA001	Frequency-distribution program	July '83
DA002	Correlation program	July '83
DA003	Frequency-distribution summary	Aug. '83
DA004	Correlation summary/discussion	Aug. '83
.	.	.
.	.	.
.	.	.

TABLE 8: INDEX – BUDGET DETAILS

Code	Entry	Date
BD001 – PO-1	Postage/correspondence to schools	Feb. '83
BD002 – ST-1	Stationery for school notices	Feb. '83
BD003 – PR-1	Printing instruments	May '83
.	.	.
.	.	.
.	.	.

TABLE 9: INDEX – RECORDS OF MEETINGS

Code	Entry	Date
MR001	Discussion with supervisor on sampling design	Feb. '83
MR002	Meeting with advisory committee to assign tasks	March '83
	.	.
	.	.
	.	.

TABLE 10: INDEX – ASSISTANCE RECEIVED

Code	Entry	Date
AS001	Memo – the typing instructions	Jan. '83
AS002	Coding instructions for report	Jan. '83
AS003	Lay-out instructions for report	Dec. '83
.	.	.
.	.	.
.	.	.

Chapter 10

Perspectives on the Teaching of Educational Administration*

Abstract

In this paper, the author presents some ideas on how to effectively teach the subject of Educational Administration to both undergraduate and graduate students. Purposes for programs, a taxonomy for the subject, some content materials, and teaching methods are presented. The emphasis is on bibliography and the Canadian scene. Further, several key questions to guide future developments are posed.

The author bases his comments on his training at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (Toronto), and his teaching, administrative, publishing, and research and development experience at the University of Saskatchewan, Lakehead University, and overseas at the University of Hong Kong. He has been involved in the formal study of Educational Administration for over fifteen years and was Course Director of Advanced Studies in the Management of Education at Hong Kong, 1980-84. As well, in those years he served as international correspondent to *Educational Administration Quarterly*. Presently, he is the editor of the Canadian Society for the Study of Education *CSSE/SCEE News.*

The point of view is, in the main, personal and the intent of the article is to modestly share ideas, with a view to there being more devel-

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opment of an accurate identity for the increasingly important subject of the management of education. It is hoped, especially, that the audience will find the article of use in developing courses.

Introduction

The formal study of Educational Administration emerged in earnest during the 1950s. The W.K. Kellogg Foundation (Battle Creek, Michigan), Ohio State University, and the University of Alberta were key organizations in the early developments (Flower, 1952). At that time, the Kellogg Foundation in the United States put millions of dollars into projects for the improvement and study of school administration. These projects were called the Co-operative Program in Educational Administration (CPEA). Kellogg established CPEA regional centres around the U.S. and one at the University of Alberta, Canada. Further, the Ohio State Leadership Studies contributed to the development of educational administration as a separate discipline. The development began in the United States and was soon prevalent in Canada and other countries. On a general level the discipline is without national boundaries, but it has taken on a distinctive character in Canada (Townsend and Lawton, 1981).

In Canada the formal study of educational administration became evident with the Canada-wide Leadership Project which was begun in 1952 by the Canadian Education Association (CEA) centred in Toronto, Ontario. The project had financial assistance from the Kellogg Foundation. Prior to that time several reports on the state of education (the Hope Commission Report, for example) had been produced, and there had been some leadership studies conducted in Canadian business and government settings, and out of the University of Alberta.

The CEA–Kellogg Project in Educational Leadership was "designed primarily to assist school superintendents and inspectors in meeting some of the pressing problems in their difficult job of providing educational leadership and supervision in Canadian communities" (Flower, 1952, p.36). George E. Flower, the Program Director, helped to gain the support of the Kellogg people. Other individuals involved were Dr. W. H. Swift (Alberta's Deputy Minister of Education), Dr. Moffat (CEA President), F.K. Stewart (CEA Executive Secretary), Dean Smith (University of Alberta), Dr. R.O. Staples (Ontario Department of Education), and Dr. MacArthur and Mr. Mustard. Active support came from all the provincial departments of education, and there was co-operation from the Canadian Teachers' Federation, the Canadian School Trustees' Association, and the National Conference of Canadian Universities (an earlier version of the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada).

The program ran until 1956. A series of conferences and institutes, many held at the University of Alberta, brought inspectors and superintendents from various provinces to live together over a period of time, working on common, practical problems, with appropriate consultants and other resources made available for their use. The annual CEA Short Course in Educational Leadership grew out of the CEA–Kellogg Project (the CPEA centre at the University of Alberta was a main influence on university programs).

From these general beginnings, we have arrived at a point where the subject of Educational Administration is being taught in universities and colleges in Canada, the U.S.A., and abroad. It is apparent that the discipline is relatively young in academe compared to many others such as Sociology and Psychology. Interestingly, this has resulted in the situation that most of the original teachers and writers within the Educational Administration culture are alive today, unlike in other fields.

Currently the materials and methods which are used to teach Educational Administration appear to vary considerably across institutions. Purposes for programs and division of the subject into topics may take different forms. In the formal literature, attention to the actual *teaching* of the subject is rather limited. Culbertson, et al. (1973), Farquhar (1977), Holdaway (1980), Hoyle (1985), Hughes (1974), Miklos (1983), Miklos and Nixon (1979), Mulford (1984), Pratt and Common (1986), Stone (1978), Thom (1984a), and Van Meter (1973), comprise much of what is available. Yet the teaching aspect is so important.

In this paper, the teaching of Educational Administration at both the undergraduate and graduate student level is discussed. Purposes, materials, and methods are reviewed. Later, some future directions are indicated. The perspective is personal, the emphasis is on Canada, and the goal of the author is to share ideas and to stimulate the reader's own viewpoint.

A Taxonomy

Despite the fact that Educational Administration has been a firm field of study in the post-secondary setting for some thirty years, it would seem that a clear common taxonomy for it has not really been developed (Hodgkinson, 1982). Granted, some authors have outlined very broad categories for partitioning the subject. For instance, Miklos (1983) discusses "social science content" and "humanities-based content". Further, Thom and Hickcox (1973) provide a broadly based framework. Inherent in a clear taxonomy for the subject would be the purposes for teaching it. The main purpose of our programs I see is providing information, skills, and techniques to help administrators to be more effective on the job [Thus a course on "politics of education" is taught for example].

My taxonomy or division of the subject of Educational Administration for teaching purposes is as follows: Structures and Roles, Educational Law, Politics of Education, Educational Finance, and Change, Planning, and the Future. Moreover, the themes of history and philosophy, theory, research and development (including knowledge utilization), and elementary/secondary and post-secondary panels cut across all five components. From my experience, the effective identification of, recruitment, and preparation of administrators is rooted in these above aspects.

Over the years, several writers have contributed to this definition of our discipline. There is a small group of individuals who might be termed "historian-philosophers" of Educational Administration. They include William Walker (Australia), Roald Campbell and Jack Culbertson (U.S.), Christopher Hodgkinson (Canada), and Meredydd Hughes and Eric Hoyle (U.K.). Donald Willower (U.S.), Daniel Griffiths (U.S.), Ted Holdaway and Erwin Miklos (Canada), and George Baron and Tom Bone (U.K.) are some others. These people have provided a valuable service. I believe that everyone who teaches the subject should familiarize himself/herself with these authors and their works (e.g., Walker's article which summarizes the historical development of Educational Administration (1954-1984) in *Educational Administration Quarterly*, December, 1984). This provides an appropriate general background.

When discussing the teaching of Educational Administration there are differentiations as to such things as undergraduate and graduate programs, Masters and Doctoral programs, and offerings which are possible by a small or large faculty. These issues will be touched on later in this paper. But now, below, under the categories of my taxonomy, are presented materials which I have found to be very useful in teaching generally.

Structures and Roles

Courses on "Educational Administrative and Organizational Theory" per se and "supervisory relations" fit under this aspect. Useful basic materials are the following:

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Theory and Research

Just presented are the five main aspects of my taxonomy for the teaching of Educational Administration. As mentioned earlier, theory and research can be considered across these aspects. In the past decade there has been a proliferation of literature on Educational Administration theory with a main thread being an expansion from scientific (deductive) approaches to phenomenological/ethnographic (inductive) approaches. Some excellent summary items are the following:

Culbertson, Jack A. "Theory in Educational Administration: Echoes from Critical Thinkers." Educational Researcher, 12, no. 10 (December, 1983), 15-22.

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Also see Thom, 1984b.

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Allison, Derek K. "Toward an Improved Understanding of the Organizational Nature of Schools." *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 19, no. 4 (Fall, 1983), 7-34.

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A good single book which illustrates the ethnographic application to education is:

Wolcott, H.F. *The Man in the Principal's Office*. New York, N.Y.: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973.

One of the original books on the topic is:

Glaser, B., and Strauss, A. *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*. Chicago, Ill.: Aldine, 1967.

and three other popular books are as follows:

Bogdan, R.C., and Biklen, S.K. *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods*. Toronto, Ont.: Allyn and Bacon, 1982.

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Holdaway, E.A. "Educational Administration in Canada: Concerns, Research and Preparation Programs." In *Canadian and Comparative Educational Administration*. Edited by R. Farquhar and I. Housego. Vancouver, B.C.: Centre for Continuing Education, University of British Columbia, 1980.

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Schaum's Outline: *Statistics*. by Murray R. Spiegel, Singapore: McGraw-Hill, 1981.

For style manuals, the most recent edition of the following is suitable:

Turabian, Kate L. *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. Chicago, Ill.: The University of Chicago Press.

for all matters except footnotes for which the handier "within text" style offered by the American Psychological Association (APA)'s *Manual of Style* is appropriate.

In the 1960s the focus of much Canadian Educational Administration research shifted to the topic of leadership. The Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) found wide application. These two research instruments and adaptations of them are still widely used. Some topics which have been of continuing research interest in recent years are school effectiveness, futures, leadership, finance, law, ethics and comparative educational administration.

Methods and Programs

There are specific methods for teaching Educational Administration most effectively, I believe. Also, there are important considerations with respect to teaching undergraduate (pre-service) versus graduate students. Following is my perspective gleaned from experience and training.

Undergraduates

Typically, students in teacher training take a compulsory introductory course in Educational Administration. The emphasis of the material is on organizational structures (including their history) and the role of the teachers in the educational system. Also, there are specific sections on law and finance. These topics reflect the basic purpose of the course - introductory and practical. Two useful course texts are Giles (1984) and Gue (1985). Further, the provincial Education Acts and Regulations and local Board of Education annual reports should be utilized. However, I have found that in addition to any text a course manual of broadly-based readings prepared by the instructor is very effective. This would contain general local materials such as tables, graphs, and charts of educational statistics and newspaper items, and materials supplementary to the text on educational law, educational finance, school boards, administrative roles, and teaching as a profession. The manual could be placed on the library reserve desk for student use.

For this type of course, the lecture format appears to be most utilized, although if class student numbers are not unwieldy, small group work and student seminar presentations are suggested. Moreover, bringing in guest speakers from teachers' federations, the school boards, and the Department or Ministry of Education is valuable. Films also are worthwhile - two which I suggest because of their relevance to the teacher role are the following: "Spaces Between People" in the "Searching For Values" series and the "Monday, Marbles, and Chalk" series (out of Saskatoon), both available from Marlin Motion Pictures.

An assignment for the course could be a major paper on the role of the new teacher with respect to the various "publics" which he/she is expected to serve (e.g., students, administrators, colleagues, the federation, parents, and so on). The Giles book is rooted in this base. This would be due at the end of the first term. Then there would be a final exam consisting of multiple choice questions, open-ended response questions, matching, and essay answer questions.

Graduates

Usually the students in a graduate class in Educational Administration have one of the following backgrounds: they are school system administrators; they are/were teachers at the elementary, secondary, or post-secondary level; they are full time students with minimum experience in education. Sometimes there are individuals from outside of education such as from the health and clergy fields. All of these individuals are motivated, mature, and can learn a great deal from one another, and the way of teaching them should reflect this.

Graduate courses can have several purposes: to develop scholars, to train researchers, or to give working skills to practitioners, are among them. Different courses emphasize different purposes. However, it would appear that most Educational Administration graduate programs today, in total, emphasize the last purpose abovementioned. This recognizes the fact that the kinds of needs which the typical students in these programs have, are for information on such things as program and personal evaluation, building teams, coping with stress, and delegating skills. I found that the Educational Administration programs in Hong Kong had to have even a stronger focus on practical/pragmatic purposes.

Rarely does one find one single text which is suitable as a required text for the Educational Administration courses at the graduate level. Earlier some key reference materials were presented under each aspect of a taxonomy for the subject. For graduate level teaching, it is recommended that the instructor prepare a book of readings of which each student has his/her own copy. The readings are drawn from across various sources - texts, journals (such as *Educational Administration Quarterly* and *The Journal of Educational Administration*), reports, newspapers, and so on, and represent the very best materials to cover the important aspects of the subject being taught. The manual could consist of two main sections - the first is labeled a "General Section" and the second a "Seminar Section". The former contains important basic materials on the subject which all students are required to read. The "Seminar Section" consists of a group of articles chosen by the instructor from which each student is to pick one article and base a seminar presentation on it. There are two main advantages to using the course manuals: this provides a collection of the best materials (including locally-based materials) from across many sources (as opposed to one particular textbook), and students have their own portable library. The portable library is particularly useful in teaching classes off-campus.

In the seminar, the student would summarize and critique the article chosen. Having his/her own manual, each student is able to read over another student presenter's article beforehand. The seminar could be evaluated on the following dimensions: Organization; Delivery; Use of Resources; Accuracy and Thoroughness; Significance to the Course theme; and Other (which includes such things as exceptional creativity or innovation on the part of the student). The seminar format provides an excellent vehicle for the professor (who originally chose the article) to input/teach ideas which he feels are important.

Therefore, the general course format would be lectures by the professor and seminar presentations by the students. Guest speakers, training films, games, and simulations could be worked in. Some suggested simulation materials are the following:

Bolton, Dale L., ed. The Use of Simulation in Educational Administration. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1971. (contains an excellent review of decision-making theory).

Taylor, William. Heading for Change. London, England: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1973.

Williamson, Jan. Case Studies in Educational Administration. Melbourne, Australia: Wilman Enterprises, 1977.

A student's final grade for the course would be based on evaluation of the seminar, class participation (includes motivation, attendance, and actual input), and a final major project, book/essay reviews, or a final examination. Weightings of approximately 30%, 20%, and 50% respectively could be applied. My experience indicates that certain courses lend themselves to a final examination, e.g., theories, and finance, and law, whereas others lend themselves to a final major project, e.g., research methods, politics, program administration, collective bargaining, and supervisory relations. Further, book reviews apply well as assignments, particularly in the politics and supervisory relations courses.

Above all, the professional development needs of students enrolled in the course should be foremost in the instructor's decision as to how to present the material. Most are doing their courses as part-time or on release-time.

Many graduate level programs in Educational Administration include a thesis or a major field project. A good experience is for the student to do an internship and write up a report on it. Further, a comprehensive examination may be given at the end of the entire graduate program. The size of the faculty offering the program and whether both Masters and Doctoral programs are being offered, determine these things somewhat. A comprehensive exam could be in the case study format.

One final note, as obvious as it may seem, is that to my mind, the professor of Educational Administration, to be most effective, should continue to research, write and be involved in the schools as his teaching career advances.

Summary

The 1950s provided the groundwork for exciting times ahead in the development of Educational Administration practice and study. Many highly committed educators then realized that tremendous growth in the educational system was coming and they worked diligently to prepare for this.

In 1965, the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) was formed in Toronto. This was a key event in the history of Canadian Educational Administration study. The OCE Department of Educational Research group, under Dr. R.W.B. Jackson, took over many of the leadership positions in OISE, along with some personnel from Alberta who were considered among the best in their field: Dr. John Andrews and Dr. Alan F. Brown among them. Several field people – Dr. Ken F. Prueter and Len Chellew, for example – and some Americans were also hired. Dr. Jackson became the first director of OISE.

Since the late 1960s we have witnessed the formation of many associations and councils interested in Educational Administration (e.g., OCLEA, BCCLE, CASEA, etc.) and a growing number of newsletters and periodicals (many of these are listed at the end of this article). Further, many international thrusts are evident (e.g., CCEA, UCEA, BCEA, etc.). These groups and materials have facilitated the sharing of ideas about Educational Administration among academics and practitioners alike.

The study of Educational Administration in Canada can take place in several different settings: colleges and faculties of education, graduate schools of education, community colleges, provincial departments of education, school trustee associations, teacher federations, school administrator associations, and various institutes. Most research is being conducted from the graduate schools and the colleges and faculties of education.

There are some unique facets of the culture of those individuals studying Educational Administration in Canada. The University of Chicago traditionally has been considered one of the top institutions for the training of Educational Administration academics. In the 1960s and '70s some Americans and Canadians who were trained at Chicago joined faculties in Canada. With the formation of OISE in 1965, many faculty from Western Canada moved to Toronto. At that time it seems that faculty members had degrees from such places as Chicago, Alberta, Toronto (Ed.D.), Oregon, Michigan, or Harvard (Ed.D.). Also, there have invariably been some former teacher college instructors and some former school system personnel on the faculties. Sometimes former Department of Education people are also on staff. Cross appointments to other departments such as Curriculum and Planning and Field Development are common. It is interesting to note that many Australians and New Zealanders take training in Educational Administration in Canadian universities. Further, many visiting professors come from these countries.

Educational Administration study has become highly politicized in recent years. With concerns for accountability at all levels, the administrator has had to become more of a businessman/politician than ever before. School law is of prime interest, with several provinces continuing to revise and consolidate existing school acts. Futuristic studies are of growing interest, as are multiculturalism issues and school-community relationships. And of course knowledge of collective bargaining is all important. Because of the breadth of Educational Administration concerns, several research projects have been generally labeled as "educational leadership development" projects. Interestingly, enrollments in Educational Administration graduate programs both on and off campus seem generally to be on the increase.

Future Considerations

Following are some issues which will continue to be addressed in the future. I present them for discussion:

- Concerning the purposes of teaching Educational Administration, the approximate mix of the academic pursuit of an esoteric discipline and "training" of administrators must be considered. In my view the emphasis should remain on training.

- Concerning the content of programs, how much on professional negotiations, collective bargaining, grievances, etc. should be presented? This material is very important in these times. Further, how can more Canadian content be successfully developed? Another problem is that many "theories" of administration do not take into consideration such things as Unions, the increasing role of government in the work place, and rapid advances in technology and communication. Important issues to consider.

- Perhaps it is time for a change in perspective on some fronts in the teaching of Educational Administration. Curiously, it appears that how to organize the schools for learning has been neglected for an emphasis on process in administration:

- Thus, how should schools actually be organized in the 1990s?

- How should students be organized around the curriculum?

- And who in the system are really the raw materials and the "workers" - the teachers or the students?

- More focus on organization and work productivity would seem to be needed.

Yet I want to firmly stress that, however we proceed, we as Educational Administration people must not lose sight of what our work is really all about - effecting leadership that enhances teaching and learning in classrooms and ultimately providing what is most beneficial and educationally sound for the student.

Conclusion

In this article the teaching of Educational Administration at both the undergraduate and graduate student level has been discussed. Some history, purposes, materials, methods and concerns for the future have been presented. Obviously the approach is an interdisciplinary one.

Educational Administration as an academic subject has been taking on an increasingly concise definition in recent years. This has been aided by a growing interest in comparative Educational Administration (e.g., Farquhar and Housego, 1980). The effective management of our educational systems should be one of society's highest priorities. Hopefully this article, through discussing the teaching aspect makes a contribution to understanding and development.

In conclusion, the author highlights that his perspectives are from personal training and experience in Canada and abroad. The goal is to summarize some of what we know about the teaching of Educational Administration and to stimulate thinking about future directions in programs and courses.

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Chapter 11

The Selection of New Graduate Students for an Educational Administration Program

The major objectives of this study were to investigate the relative effectiveness of three types of selectors in the process of selecting new graduate students for an educational administration program and further to examine the usefulness of various pieces of information submitted by these graduate students when applying for the program in predicting both success in the graduate program and in later administrative practice. Groups of the three types of selectors were presented with the application files of six actual students who had enrolled in a graduate program of educational administration five years previous. The respondents were asked to predict on the basis of the information in the files whether the students would do well in the program and whether they would have successful administrative careers. The actual achievements of these students were known to the researchers. The findings indicate that the three types of selectors studied were equally effective in the selection process with some tendency for each group to select better for a particular aspect of success. It was also shown that most of the application materials requested from students are useful in predicting future success. Several recommendations based on these findings are presented.

INTRODUCTION

Each year, university departments of educational administration select new students for their graduate programs. Generally, the process involves the examination of background information on the candidates by various categories of staff members, and students in some cases. The present study examines the usefulness of the various pieces of candidate background information in predicting success both in the graduate program and in later administrative practice, and it also investigates the relative effectiveness of various categories of selectors in choosing new graduate students for an educational administration program.

BACKGROUND

Most previous approaches to the problem of selecting new students have involved trying to correlate the information in application documents with some criterion of success in educational administration. The most commonly used criterion is success in educational administration graduate programs. Success on the job is rarely used in a systematic way.

Some studies in various fields including educational administration have indicated that previous academic achievement is the best indicator of future academic achievement.[1] Burns,[2] however, could find only a slight relationship between previous academic grades and subsequent grades. The few studies specific to the relation between academic record and later career behaviour have been inconclusive.[3]

A second item usually requested from applicants for an educational administration program is the *Miller Analogies Test* (MAT) score. Research studying the usefulness of the MAT score in predicting academic program success has been inconclusive. Specific to educational administration, no relationships or very slight relationships between MAT scores and grade point averages and other standardized test scores have been reported.[4] Studies of the relationship between the MAT score and success in administrative practice have indicated no connection.[5] An interesting phenomenon is that students of education at all levels score consistently lower on MAT than do other professional groups.[6]

As an additional source of predictive information, letters of recommendation are often solicited from applicants. Bozarth's study[7] attempted to relate the content of these letters to the measurable attributes of the people about whom the letters were written. Bozarth found a zero correlation between statements concerning intelligence, as categorized and weighted by a jury, and combined scores on MAT and the *Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal*. Other low correlations were found regarding the notion of social acceptability and professional promise. That Bozarth's findings were meaningful has been supported by the results of subsequent studies inferring that letters of recommendation are poor predictors of either program success or post-program success.[8]

The other pieces of information usually requested from each applicant for an educational administration program are a résumé of his personal background and goals, a School of Graduate Studies application form which contains further information about the applicant, and a program planning sheet. Although there have been no research studies done on the value of these specific items in predicting program or field success, some studies that focus on the value in predicting field success from certain types of information that would be found or implied throughout the résumé, the application form, and the planning sheet have been conducted. Again, these studies generally are inconclusive.[9]

Other approaches to studying personnel selection have produced results suggesting alternate sources of variation. For instance, in fields different from educational administration, the selection of personnel has often been approached from a very mathematical point of view based mainly on the ideas of Cronbach and Gleser.[10] Two such studies were those by Einhorn[11] in the field of psychology and by Weiss[12] in an undergraduate setting. The approach in these works was to study how selectors in the selection process subconsciously combine predictor variables (e.g., in a linear combination, in a non-linear combination), how many predictor variables the selector's mind can handle effectively, and whether or not there is selector consistency in the use of the predictor variables. Weiss concluded,

> though a number of unresolved questions are identified, it appears that there is significant value in a non-linear assignment of weights which make up the total score by which applicants to college may be rank ordered.[13]

McIntyre[14] took a unique approach to the selection problem. He asked graduate students in educational administration, school principals, and other graduate students in education to try to predict success of currently practising administrators by examining the information provided by these administrators at the time of application to a graduate program. It was thus possible for McIntyre to measure the accuracy of the judgments in terms of how well the applicants had done in their careers.

McIntyre discovered that graduate students in educational administration were more accurate in their predictions than were graduate students in general, who were, in turn, more accurate than were school principals in predicting future success. Statistical tests were not used in this research. McIntyre also discovered that

1. the more information a respondent had at his disposal, the more accurate his predictions tended to be
2. test scores and transcripts were the most effective predictor variables
3. letters of recommendation were not very effective in predicting.

McIntyre's work indicates that the selector is an important source of variation in selection effectiveness. Some reasons advanced, which are supported in the literature, are:

1. selectors serve a great control function as to who becomes a member of a particular organization[15]
2. selectors are inclined to select others who are like themselves[16] and
3. professionals are thought of as being the most effective selectors of applicants for their profession.[17]

As well, some writers believe that more research should be done on the effect of different role mixes within a group of selectors of educational personnel.[18]

RESEARCH DESIGN

The approach of the present study was to examine further the relationship between the selector and selection effectiveness in the context of an educational administration graduate program.

The Selection Criteria

Most personnel selection procedures involve some major criterion by which selection decisions are made. Those selecting predict for each applicant how well he will satisfy the criterion. Conceptually, the ultimate criterion is the total worth of a man to the organization "in the final analysis". However, such an abstraction is not actually measurable until the man's total stay with the organization is terminated.[19]

What is the criterion by which new graduate students in educational administration are selected? Several writers have described the ultimate criterion as success in educational administration,[20] a difficult concept to define.[21] Defining success involves a value judgment; hence there are a multitude of definitions. According to Halpin success should be expressed in terms of

> group organization achievement, in respect to changes in the organization's accomplishments that can be attributed to the behavior of the administrator.[22]

James[23] viewed success in educational administration as the degree to which the administrator keeps all personnel who work for him operating at maximum levels of efficiency and creativity within a democratic framework.

The difficulty in measuring a criterion with such broad meanings has necessitated the development of a more measurable "intermediate" criterion of success in educational administration, with the assumption that the intermediate criterion bears a relation to the general concept of administrative success. Thus the successful administrator has been described, for example, as a good-looking man of integrity and fairness, with skills in many areas;[24] an academic man of action;[25] and an individual who scores highly on the "consideration" and "initiating structure" dimensions of the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ).[26]

Guion[27] and Halpin[28] both cautioned against the use of a single intermediate criterion of success, and argued for a multiple criterion approach to leadership. In the present study three intermediate criteria of success, where criterion elements are distinct, are defined for educational administration: academic success, career success, and administrative success.[29]

Academic success is defined as the attainment of a first class grade average on all graduate courses in educational administration. Academic success in this sense means that the highest degree of program success is the completion of that program as well as the attainment of a first class average on the courses that constitute the program. Non-success is defined as the failure to complete the program as well as failure to attain a first class average on all courses taken.

Career is conceived of as being orderly and progressive and career success as being the attainment of two or more school system prototypes (i.e., positions of increasing responsibility) after enrollment in a full-time graduate program of educational administration. These prototypes are normally defined in order from lower to higher as follows: classroom teacher with no administrative experience, assistant department head, department head, vice-principal or administrative assistant, principal, consultant, assistant superintendent, superintendent, and director.[30] However, prototype for this study was defined in terms of a level of responsibility and thus the above prototypes as well as those that represent lateral ranks applied. For example, principal of a small school and principal of a large school were considered to be two prototypes, the first involving less responsibility than the second. Similarly, an assistant superintendent of a small school system and an assistant superintendent of a large school system were considered to be two advancing prototypes.

Administrative success was defined as the attainment of good on-the-job performance as an educational administrator. This component of success was identified in terms of high *initiating structure* performance and high *consideration* performance. These two dimensions of leader behaviour, developed by Halpin and Winer, were defined as follows:

> *Initiating structure* refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work-group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure.
>
> *Consideration* refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.[31]

Information on Applicants

This study employed two types of information on six past applicants[32] to a full-time educational administration program. The first type consisted of the six pieces of background information – previous university transcripts, the MAT score, letters of recommendation, a résumé, a completed School of Graduate Studies application form, and a program planning sheet – which the applicant was required to submit when he first applied for a Master's program in educational administration. The second type consisted of information on whether each past applicant was currently a successful (i.e., academic, career, administrative) educational administrator.

The Selectors

Three types of selectors were used – educational administration faculty members, principals (including vice-principals), and full-time graduate students in educational administration. These individuals themselves had experienced varying mixes of academic, career, and administrative success in educational administration.

Research Questions

Each selector was asked to decide, using the application documents as predictor variables, whether an applicant satisfied the selection criterion (in this study defined in terms of success). After doing so for all applicants, each selector was then asked to explain how he used the application documents in his decisions.

Since the applicants used in this study were real persons who had applied to the educational administration program several years ago, it was known whether they were presently successful by the definition of success adopted for the study. Thus the accuracy of success prediction by the three types of selectors could be determined. The main research questions were:

1. Are there differences in how accurately educational administration faculty members, practising principals, and graduate students in educational administration predict the success in educational administration of a group of applicants for a full-time educational administration program?

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2. Of what use are the usual pieces of applicant background information in the prediction process?

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used for data collection. The first, "An Exercise on Predicting Success in Educational Administration," was developed by the authors based on McIntyre's work.[33] McIntyre's original exercise was not used because it was deemed to be "culture-bound" and the prediction questions were too general for the purposes of this study. Following McIntyre's ideas, the authors used six former full-time graduate students of an educational administration program as subjects of the exercise. The permission of each of these students was obtained. Files for all six from several years ago were assembled and only names and places on them were changed. Each file contained the six pieces of background information.

A sheet of questions concerning these subjects' files was then prepared. In Section One, five prediction questions with yes or no answers were posed:

Within the next five years will he (the subject):

1. Earn an M.Ed. or M.A. degree in educational administration?
2. Earn two or more moves to administrative positions of greater responsibility in a school system?
3. As an administrator demonstrate behaviour in the relationship between himself and the members of his staff that is indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth?
4. As an administrator delineate the relationship between himself and members of his staff, and establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure?
5. Earn a 75 percent or better average on the graduate courses in educational administration that he completes? (In Ontario, 75 percent is equivalent to first class or an "A" rating.)

Questions one and five pertained to academic success, two to career success and three and four to administrative success.

In Section Two, the respondents were asked to rank order the six pieces of information on each subject according to how these pieces were used in answering each of the questions of Section One.

The LBDQ was originally developed by J. K. Hemphill and A. E. Coons. The form used in this study was devised by Halpin and Winer, and consisted of 30 questions, each describing a specific kind of administrator behaviour. There were five choices for the answer to each question, ranging from "Very Frequently" or "Always" to "Very Rarely" or "Never".

Fifteen of the questions were designed to measure consideration behaviour, while the other 15 were intended to measure initiating structure behaviour. This instrument was used to collect current data on the six subjects of this study's main instrument. It was administered to the current superordinate of each of the six subjects.

The Sample

The respondents consisted of 25 faculty members of a university department of educational administration in Ontario, Canada, 35 individuals each of whom was either a practising school principal or vice-principal, and 25 full-time graduate students in the same university department of educational administration.

Data Collection

In the first phase of the data collection, responses to the student files, 72 percent of the faculty members, 100 percent of the principals, and 80 percent of the graduate students responded.

The second phase of the data collection was to obtain current information on the six subjects in terms of their success. The information was gathered by examining updated files in their one-time department of educational administration and by interviews with individuals presently working with the subjects, specifically the immediate superordinates of the subjects. Each superordinate completed the LBDQ for the particular subject.

ANALYSIS

Since success in educational administration was defined for this study in terms of an academic, a career, and an administrative component, the procedure was to analyze separately the data pertaining to each type of success. By analyzing the data collected in the second phase, the actual answers to the prediction questions of Section One were determined. The actual answers to questions three and four came from the responses to the LBDQ. For each subject, a score on the consideration and initiating structure dimensions was obtained by assigning the numbers 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 to the possible responses A, B, C, D, E, respectively, on the LBDQ answered by superordinates, and summing over each dimension. The highest possible total on each dimension was 75 and the researchers assigned the actual "yes" to totals of 60 or more and the actual answer "no" to totals of less than 60.[34]

The Prediction of Academic Success

The results indicated that on predicting the answers to the academic success questions across the six subjects, the principals got 63.2 percent of their answers correct, the faculty members 61.9 percent and the graduate students 61.6 percent. A chi square test indicated that these differences in prediction accuracy were not statistically significant. However, the fact that accuracy was over 60 percent suggests that there is information in the usual applicant documentation that is of relatively good value for prediction.

Section Two data were analyzed to determine how the pieces of applicant information were used in predicting success. It was found that the principal and faculty groups gave the following relative importance: transcripts, MAT score, letters of recommendation, résumé, application form, and program planning sheet. As well, the graduate students gave the following relative priorities: transcripts, letters of recommendation, résumé, MAT score, planning sheet and application form.

Common to the pattern of information used for all groups is the fact that previous university transcripts were given first priority in predicting academic success. As well, two of the three groups gave second priority to the MAT score.

The Prediction of Career Success

The results indicated that on predicting the answer to the career success question across the six subjects, the graduate students got 63.9 percent of their answers correct, the principals 54.1 percent, and the faculty members 51.0 percent. A chi square test indicated that these differences in prediction accuracy were not statistically significant. However, the graduate student group *tended* to be more accurate in their predictions than were the other two groups.

From an analysis of data collected in Section Two, it was shown that all three respondent groups gave the same relative priorities to the applicant information: letters of recommendation, résumé, transcripts, MAT score, application form, and planning sheet. Previous studies by Bozarth[35] and McIntyre[36] concluded that letters of recommendation were of little predictive value in the student selection process. However, the value of the résumé in predicting career success was a conclusion of some previous studies.[37]

The Prediction of Administrative Success

To achieve a more detailed analysis of the prediction of administrative success, the responses to question three on consideration behaviour were analyzed separately from the responses to question four on initiating structure behaviour. First, the results indicated that on predicting the answer to the question on consideration behaviour across the six subjects, the faculty members got 65.9 percent of their answers correct, the graduate students 57.4 percent and the principals 53.4 percent. A chi square test indicated that these differences in prediction accuracy were not statistically significant. However, the faculty group *tended* to be more accurate in their predictions than were the other two groups.

The results of the analysis of data collected in Section Two indicated that the faculty and principal groups gave the same relative priorities to the applicant information: letters of recommendation, résumé, transcripts, MAT score, application form, and planning sheet. The graduate student group gave the following relative priorities: letters of recommendation, résumé, transcripts, planning sheet, MAT score, and application form. Common to the pattern of information use for all groups is the fact that the letters of recommendation and the résumé were considered to be the most useful.

With regard to the question on initiating structure behaviour, the results indicated that on predicting the answer to this question across the six subjects, the faculty members got 42.5 percent of their answers correct, the graduate students 42.2 percent, and the principals 42.0 percent. A chi square test indicated that these differences in prediction accuracy were not statistically significant. The fact that accuracy was poor (i.e., less than 50 percent) suggests that there is a scarcity of information of good predictive value in the applicant documentation. An analysis of the relevant data of

Section Two yielded results that indicated that all three groups used the applicant information to predict initiating structure behaviour in a way very similar to that used for consideration behaviour. In other words, the letters of recommendation and the résumé were considered to be the most useful.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The results of data analysis indicated that there are no differences in how accurately faculty members, principals, and graduate students predict the success in educational administration of a group of applicants for an educational administration program. In particular there are no differences in how accurately these three groups predict any one of the three aspects of success in educational administration (i.e., academic, career, and administrative) as defined in this study. Further, it was found that the prediction accuracy of these groups is good for academic success (over 60 percent), fair for career success and the consideration behaviour dimension of administrative success (over 50 percent), and poor for the initiating structure behaviour dimensions of administrative success (just over 40 percent).

Further data analysis yielded results that indicated that certain pieces of information sought from the applicants – previous transcripts, MAT score, letters of recommendation, and résumé – are of relatively good value in predicting at least one aspect of success in educational administration. In particular, results indicated that the use of previous transcripts and MAT score to predict academic success yields good accuracy. Further results demonstrated that the letters of recommendation and the résumé are relatively useful in predicting career success and the consideration behaviour dimension of administrative success. That there is value in the use of the School of Graduate Studies application form and the program planning sheet for predicting success in educational administration was not supported by the results of this study.

A final analysis of the data produced results that indicated that the following relative priorities are being given to the applicant information in the prediction of overall success (i.e., academic, career, administrative analyzed all together) in educational administration: letters of recommendation, previous transcripts, résumé, MAT score, application form, and program planning sheet.

The conclusions of this study pertain to the selector in the process of selecting new graduate students for an educational administration program and to the usefulness of applicant information in this process.

The three types of selectors – educational administration faculty members, practising principals, and full-time educational administration graduate students – can select new graduate students for an educational administration program equally well. Even though the results of the study indicated no statistically significant differences in selection effectiveness among the three groups, there were tendencies for one group to be better than the others on the research instrument of the study. For instance, the principal group tended to be most accurate in selecting students for academic success, the graduate student group most accurate in selecting students for career success, and the faculty group most accurate in selecting students for the consideration behaviour dimension of administrative success. These tendencies just mentioned imply that the student selection committee of a graduate department of educational administration could benefit from the membership of each of these educational role types.

The second conclusion of this study is that the previous university transcripts, the MAT score, the letters of recommendation, and the résumé sought from the applicants appear to be useful in the selection process. In particular, the results indicated that all groups responding to the research instrument obtained good prediction accuracy on academic success by giving first importance to the previous transcripts and the MAT score, and fair prediction accuracy on career success, on the consideration dimension of administrative success, and on overall success in educational administration by giving first importance to the letters of recommendation and the résumé. The importance attached to the letters of recommendation and the résumé by all respondent groups suggests that a restructuring of these documents (i.e., specification of what information is being sought) would increase their usefulness in predicting. Several respondents to the research instrument made the specific comment that they felt that the letters of recommendation should be restructured. Other respondent comments were that they felt personal interviews should be added to the selection procedure and that more information (e.g., perhaps a completed LBDQ) about the performance of an applicant in the position held upon application for the program would enhance selection effectiveness.

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29. The authors are indebted to Dr. T. B. Greenfield of the Department of Educational Administration, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, for his help in formulating these three success components.
30. This terminology reflects the pattern of use for public school systems in Ontario, Canada. The director of education is the chief school officer.
31. Halpin, A. W. 1966. *op. cit.* p. 39.
32. The six applicants were chosen on the following basis: each had been a first year full-time graduate student of educational administration in Ontario, Canada at least five years previously and had fully complete application files. The Ontario factor was used to avoid added variance due to geographical location. Only seven students in the entire file from which these applicants were sampled satisfied the selection basis and six were selected randomly from these.
33. McIntyre, K. E. 1965. *op. cit.*
34. The reasons for choosing sixty as the cut-off for "yes" on the two LBDQ dimensions is that the lowest possible total on each dimension was 15 (each of 15 questions was answered on a 1 to 5 scale) and the highest possible total was 75. This made 60 equal to three quarters of the total possible score and it was decided that if an applicant scored this well or better he had obtained a first class standing as a practising administrator. A 75 percent grade in Ontario represents first class standing.
35. Bozarth, H. C. *op. cit.*
36. McIntyre, K. E. 1971. *op. cit.*
37. Campbell, R. F. 1958 *op. cit.*

Chapter 12

Ideas on Academic Writing and Publishing

Abstract

This article describes effective ways and means of improving one's scholarly writing and getting the work published. The author himself has written and published extensively on the international scale since 1972. From his experience, he provides valuable information on such things as choosing what and when to write, choosing a style, and deciding where to submit a manuscript. The progressive steps in the writing and publishing career of an academic are overviewed. The article's tone is candid and personalized. Particularly professors and graduate students will find the article of benefit.

Introduction

I am somebody who has been fortunate enough to write and publish a considerable amount of material. It is intriguing how that has resulted because I do not think of myself as having actively and aggressively pursued getting into print. Rather, after writing things which I had wanted to since 1971, when I looked at my publications in 1986, I had quite a few. The single most important factor in my having such a number of publications, is that very early, when I was a graduate student, I had a few professors who strongly encouraged me to start publishing; I did publish a few things both jointly with these professors - who were well known in my discipline (Educational Administration) - and on my own. This started me well.

In this article, the reader is provided with workable ideas about how to be successful with writing and publishing. They stem from an overview of things which have been written previously and interaction with other scholars and publishing people. And a solidifying feature is that I have worked through these ideas by myself. Some sound tips with respect to getting published items that one would like to have published are presented. After a general preamble, the format of what follows is first to discuss writing (especially from an academic's perspective) and then to discuss publishing.

Preamble

The typical university professor is expected to perform in the following areas: teaching, research and development, committee and periodic administrative work, community service, and writing and publishing. For a standard teacher training institution, the supervision of practice teachers can be added as an area. In some universities at the beginning of each academic year, each faculty member is asked to identify three of the responsibility areas above mentioned on which he/she wishes to concentrate and be evaluated on that year for Departmental purposes. One is expected to be active in all areas, but it is recognized that it is difficult to excel in so many diverse aspects of the job over a short span of time. This is realistic.

Of all the areas of responsibility of the academic's work, it is fair to say that research, writing and publishing are considered to be "the hardest thing to do" and do well. This is a feeling that exists among academics themselves in the university culture. The reasons for that seem tied to the facts that it takes considerable creativity, patience, and effort to do these particular things effectively, and it normally takes a long time before you see the results. For example, from the time a piece of research is complete to the time something in print appears from it is considerable. Good pure academic work takes time; for the other tasks such as teaching, committee and administrative work and community service, we can more quickly see the results from being involved. My personal view is that research, writing, and publishing are the most difficult aspects of our job. However, I do not assess other academics by saying that because they are not publishing or doing research, they are inferior academics. Some people feel that way. I feel that some people have a real talent for doing these things and some do not. There are people who have a gift for writing and publishing. There are people who have a gift for doing research. And there are others who are great university teachers and others who are excellent committee people. We need them all with their combined contributions. Granted, I do like to think that at least periodically, every academic writes something.

There is little doubt that in tenure and promotion considerations and salary or merit pay increases committees give importance to research and publications. This is a reality. What this has set off is that some people publish at any cost. They, perhaps a few working together, will quickly produce many articles (often on the same general theme) and perhaps attempt to do some "quick and dirty" research so that there will be enough pages for the Department head to count at evaluation time. There are academics strongly into this and the results usually are mediocrity all around.

To continue, my experience is that many people have somewhat of a negative attitude toward writing and publishing. They deride the idea of publications. When I assess why they feel that way, I often think that they themselves have not tried to write something and publish it. They maybe feel that there is too much recognition given to faculty for publishing pieces of paper and they might feel that much of the work that is being done is mediocre. Regardless, in the university there is considerable negative attitude toward publishing and it is unfortunate. If only we could adopt the idea that some people can and like to write and publish and others are talented in other areas. The goal is to appreciate the variety of contributions across one's colleagues.

Ideas on Writing

One of the best reasons to write is to advance knowledge. In other words, the more a person thinks "I am writing, hoping to get my ideas spread around through publication, I am writing with the ideal of actually contributing new knowledge to my discipline" the better. If one thinks that they have to write just in order to keep their job or get promoted, it is not the healthiest attitude to have, but many academics start out that way.

What about some techniques on how to write? I think one of the best techniques is to look at examples of good things that are already written and have been published. If one is thinking of writing a book review, look up some good book reviews. I would say even borrow some of the standard phrases that seem to appear time and time again in good book reviews and practice them. Check the flow of ideas, check the format that good book reviews seem to use and imitate these in your own work. To assist with the style features of one's work, there are various style books. Two that are very popular in writing and publishing activity are Kate L. Turabian's *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations* (University of Chicago) and the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (APA, New York). I suggest using a combination of the two guides in writing. Overall follow the Turabian style, except for footnoting. The

Turabian footnote scheme is quite cumbersome whereby one puts the footnote at the bottom of the page on which the reference is made. The APA style is very convenient however — right in the text after the citation one inserts in brackets the author, the date, and the page number (if available) of the reference. Later, all bibliography items are listed alphabetically at the end of the publication. Therefore my suggestion is to follow Turabian except for footnotes for which the APA footnoting style is suggested. Many journals for considering manuscripts require the APA format. Another thing to help you in your writing is to continually get input from other people. Some people seem to want to guard what they have written, failing to see the value in sharing their ideas with others. There are some ideas around that somebody might steal your work; I personally think that people do not have the time or energy to steal work from you; things just do not seem to work that way to me. I would say that the more you circulate your work for reaction, the more you consult people who are willing to help, the more you are going to learn about how to write well. I also recommend that after you have written a manuscript, you give it to an editor or to a person who majored in English and who has done editing. Early on I started using editors for my work. I found that I learned a great deal from them. They advised on sentence structure, wording and rearranging. Certainly there are critics who will look at this in a negative way exclaiming that the involvement of this editor means that the work is no longer really the original writer's and the publishing system is being abused. This is something one must get over, the idea that somebody might criticize you because you have received other people's input. *You* know if your integrity is maintained. There are some wrinkles on this depending on who the person is that is editing or commenting on your work. You might want to give them an acknowledgement in a footnote on the front page or at the end of your work under "Notes", or you might even want to joint-author. On a few occasions after giving my first draft of an article to somebody to read I found that they had so much to add that I suggested that we joint-author the piece and we did.

Another suggestion about writing is to start early in your career. I already mentioned how I was encouraged and excited by a couple of my professors early on. I started to write seriously when I was twenty-three years of age. At first it was very awkward and I looked at the things I wrote and I thought that they were not very good, but in hindsight I see the value in starting early and struggling along practicing and getting input from others. It does not take that long before one has picked up considerable information about how to write clearly, how to write with good unity and coherence. Another point relating to co-authoring stems from this idea about starting early. Often a graduate student publishes a piece with a professor. We sometimes hear that the professor will insist his name appears first on the publication even though the student may be responsible for most of the work. For example, perhaps the professor supervised the student's dissertation on which the article is based. My viewpoint is that determining whose name appears first should be based on what is fair and on negotiation between the professor and student. The co-authors may decide to publish several pieces and alternate the order of their names. Regardless, it is of value for a student to have a known professor's name as a co-author--for credibility and future career considerations.

Earlier I mentioned unity and coherence. To me that is the core of good writing. These are what one strives for. This is how a writer gets a "tight" piece of work. I remember the first article that I was writing for publication. It was from my M.A. thesis (University of Toronto) and my supervisor, Dr. Ed Hickcox, was co-author. When we finished the final draft Dr. Hickcox said to me: "Fine, there is one thing left to do; I want you to go home and sit in a quiet place and I want you to read this draft one more time from start to finish - right through without stopping - and make sure it flows smoothly, that there are no 'rough bumps' in it." Now it was an abstract idea which Dr. Hickcox was forwarding but over the years I have come to appreciate what he meant and have used his suggestion as a final check on unity and coherence in my writing.

With respect to writing and publishing generally, I believe that the real challenge and the most difficult part is the actual writing itself. My experience is that periodicals and publishers are looking for good manuscripts. I feel that the writer these days can always find a place for publishing his/her work. That is not the difficult part. The difficult part is getting the writing started and getting the manuscript finished. Many people seem to get discouraged and become negative about writing because they feel that whatever they write will have a slim chance of getting published. Well, I believe that that's not the case. I find that if you sit down and in good faith write something, you can find some place where it will be published. It may not be in a high-profile journal but there are many newsletters and lower-key periodicals as possibilities. Further, producing manuscripts now is greatly facilitated by using microcomputers into which drafts can be typed for future editing and copying.

Ideas on Publishing

Once the manuscript is prepared, attention turns to getting it published. Figure I summarizes what I call "Phases in a Publishing Career."

Figure 1

Phases in a Publishing Career

- first publication (e.g., a book review or a conference paper)
- a substantial article published (often from one's thesis)
- more items published "for advancement" (in general journals and newsletters)
- more items published (in prestigious publications - perhaps coauthored)

- publication of a bibliography in one's subject area
- others quote your work in their publications and you quote them
- one is invited to write for publication (e.g., to review books, to contribute a chapter to a book) - publishing "for enjoyment"
- assisting students with publication (perhaps co-authoring)
- a book published (perhaps from one's thesis)
- lengthy "research-based" publications and an article on the "state of the art" in your discipline perhaps
- possibly become editor of a journal
- increasing acknowledgement of your works in other's publications
- more books published
- items published in other languages; perhaps audio-visual productions of one's ideas

This is developed from my personal experience and from talking to other people about their publishing careers; granted there are imperfections in my scheme. One's publishing career tends to proceed as follows: One has a first publication. It is often a book review or a conference paper that one has presented and gets published in the proceedings. Next, one has a substantial article published; it could result from one's completed thesis. Then one has more items published. In the early stages the tendency is to submit manuscripts to the general education journals, not to the top journals of one's field. Also, there are newsletters that are not as difficult to get published in and yet good visibility is attained. At this point in the career one generally is "publishing for advancement." Typically one is in the early stages of the academic career, say as an assistant professor, and knows the importance of publications for tenure and promotion. So one attempts to get a number of things published in a short period of time.

Next, one will try to get a larger piece published in the more prestigious journals. Perhaps one will find a well-known co-author to help. Actually it is said that the best way to get into a prestigious journal is to start with a book review of a recent important new book. Or one might submit a piece for the "Research Notes" type of section which often appears in this type of journal. This would be a summary of one's completed research. Further, a way of appearing in the prestigious journal might be to submit a response or rebuttal to an article which appeared previously.

To publish a bibliography is sometimes a next step in an academic's career. This item is valuable in that it brings about a consolidation of information which is useful to others in one's discipline; publication helps to develop the compiler's reputation. Then, the career often follows generally: having others quote your work, being invited to review books and write articles and chapters, co-authoring with students, generally helping students to get published, publishing a book (perhaps from a thesis) and then producing for the top journals more lengthy articles from detailed research. Beyond that one continues to have one's work acknowledged in others. Further, one might experiment with publishing in different languages and with non-print mediums such as audio-visual cassettes.

Next I will say some words on the actual choosing of the place (e.g., periodical) to which one sends the item for publication. Following are important considerations:

- who is the audience?

- is the publication refereed? does it have an editorial board?

- is copyright involved?

- of what quality is the journal? what is the history?

- how often is publication (2 issues? 4 issues? per year, etc.) in other words, how soon could I expect to see my ideas in print?

- what is the distribution? how much visibility will my work get?

- is the publication indexed in such as the Canadian Education Index for quick access by others?

- are there special thematic issues of the publication for which my manuscript would be especially appropriate?

- am I paid for my contribution or must I pay (e.g., by the page) to have it published?

It helps to get to know editors. Over time they get to know you and your work and this facilitates things. As to the ethics on submitting one's manuscript to more than one publication at a time, there is a growing acceptance of multiple submissions because of the fact that some editorial boards take a disproportionate amount of time to respond to writers.

Concluding Remarks

It is hoped that this article has provided some useful ideas for those who are interested in developing their writing and publishing careers. To summarize, with some elaboration, following are suggestions:

- start the career as soon as possible

- learn from good examples of material already produced

- welcome other people's input

- develop common themes in your writing and become known for these (in formulating titles for articles use as first words the ideas which you would like a person assessing education indexes to find quickly)

- publish your ideas across a variety of periodicals

- go for quality *and* quantity

- be optimistic

- write somewhat controversial material

- get excited (!) about your writing and publishing future

- above all remember that good writing involves creativity and discipline and that the most difficult part on the way to getting published is sitting down and completing the actual writing itself.

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Part 4

Toward Tomorrow

Chapter 1

On Improving Society and Schools

> *The function of the artist is to disturb. His duty is to arouse the sleepers, to shake the complacent pillars of the world. he reminds the world of its dark ancestry, shows the world its present, and points the way to its new birth.*
>
> Norman Bethune

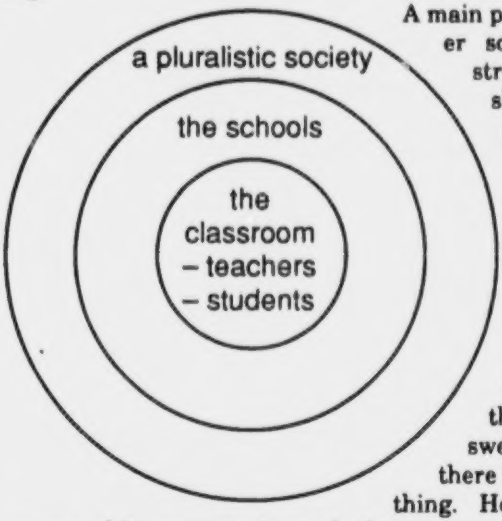
The Canadian society is the way it is. The education system is the way it is. These are givens. However, people hold differing views as to the quality of these things. Some feel that we have a very good state of affairs; others are not so positive. In this article I write from my vantage point as an academic who sees his role as that of constructive critic; and also as a husband, and a father of two young children. I strive to be critical but helpful.

First, I must confess that I find it somewhat painful to write on the subject of this article. It would be easier to accept things the way they are and to "go with the flow" in the development of society and schools, wherever it may be going. But I see this as a large part of a complacency problem; it is so easy to be swept up in the tide and to forget to reassess our means and ends periodically. It is said that critical writing involves discomfort. Since I accept this, my conscience, my training, my experience, my role, and my appreciation of my country tell me that I should become involved.

Second, I must establish that I am quite aware of the arguments against "absolute truth" and for "moral relativism," and I apply these in my analysis. For the most part my approach in this critique is to be a little absolute but to describe alternatives (some based on the past and some on the future) with respect to most issues. I leave the readers to decide what is the truth for them - I hope to stimulate and provide the food for thought.

There have been exciting and insightful analyses of society written over the years: Huxley's *Brave New World*, Orwell's *1984*, Callahan's *Education and the Cult of Efficiency*, Toffler's *Future Shock* and the *Third Wave*, Reich's *The Greening of America*, and more recently Naisbitt's *Megatrends*, to name a few. These enlightened authors have revealed to us underlying trends in our culture and then have evaluated where we are headed. Their words are not only exciting but also frightening reading - exciting because they border on fantasy, and frightening because they border on reality. My comment is more modest.

My overall model to depict current society and schools is quite basic and straightforward and is described as follows: we have a pluralistic society in which there is a high tolerance of different value systems. Within this society exist the schools in which changes follow and lag behind changes in society by several years; in the classrooms of the schools are teachers and impressionable students who are participating in the teaching-learning process. Pictorially we have the following:



A main problem is that the broader society is wrought with strong politics and technoshock, whereby many choices but little direction is offered and young students' minds can become very confused. What ensues can be considered in the context of my model.

As mentioned earlier, it is fairly easy to accept the situation; in fact, to be swept up in things. And there is good and bad in everything. However, I believe that some real improvements are both necessary and possible; possible at least because we have had some better things in the past and because we see some better things in other countries. Below, I present my specifics, fully recognizing how dogmatic I am being.

Comments on Society

The world has become a very noisy place; also it moves at a very fast pace; we are bombarded with such things as continuous television, video cassettes, and frequent change. The human organism is adaptable, no doubt, but I believe that in the current milieu it is being very much overtaxed. What needs to be impressed upon people is the value of quiet time away from noise, time in which to calm one's total system and to get gently in touch with attributes such as patience, simplicity, and with Nature. A continually noisy environment is not the only or the most desirable situation. People need assistance so that they don't "burn out".

Many media people are culprits in the world of today. These newspeople highlight and sensationalize the negative and less noble things that happen in society. These things "sell". However, I feel that a great disservice is being done. The media paint a picture of gloom and doom - not hope - and many in society could be led into depression. There always has been and always will be bad and good in everything. These days people cannot be blamed for turning off the news report or ignoring the newspaper because of the overemphasis on the bad.

A new honesty is needed in our society at large. This can range anywhere from a person not abusing the unemployment insurance system to government Ministers not using their position to give unfair advantage to relatives and friends. Moreover, quality, excellence, family ties and common sense all are concepts that need strong reassertion as being important in our lives. I maintain that most individuals today live with excessive fear and insecurity. It is a result initially of our society being too comfortable - "we have everything" - to a point where it is difficult for a person to set and stick to clear long-range goals, and where initiative, satisfaction and an individual's pride in a job well done are downplayed. This attitude is inappropriate for human nature. A new personal honesty is required and I elaborate in the next section.

Most individuals appear to have very high expectations of material gain. This is the result of an increasingly affluent society. This phenomenon would almost be acceptable if individuals were willing to make sacrifices, have patience, and even experience pain to realize this gain. But this generally appears not to be the case. Many feel that gain should come quickly and with minimum effort. Mind you, advertising promotes this kind of feeling; many people really believe the "Pepsi-generation" fast-paced fun is possible 24 hours a day. Advertising lulls us into falsely thinking that "the good life" is at hand without personal sacrifice - it is not always that individuals start out not expecting to make a personal sacrifice; it is just that they begin to believe that it is not required. Further, the promotion of equal opportunity for all and widespread rights and freedoms in the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms can be inappropriately interpreted by some to mean high quality of life for every person with or without solid effort. John Gardner (1961) asks the question "Can We Be Equal and Excellent Too?" In many cases I think not. Basically the notion of "as you sow, so shall you reap," or the more contemporary "no guts, no glory," still represents the real world.

There are several very specific basic ideas which I feel, if promoted in our society, would greatly improve things.For instance, people need to grasp more than they currently do that in a developed society such as ours, love and happiness are goals for every individual. We all naturally strive for these things and, to me, those who argue that they do not need such things are fooling themselves. So many individuals are seeking meaning and motivation in their lives, and are being continually frustrated because they fail to accept these two desires. Hermann Hess's *Siddhartha* (1983) revealed the meaning of life - giving and receiving love. And Bertrand Russell (1958; 175-180) described "the happy man" in part as follows:

> *Certain things are indispensable to the happiness of most men, but these are simple things: food and shelter, health, love, successful work and the respect of one's own herd. To some people parenthood also is essential . . . Where outward circumstances are not definitely unfortunate, a man should be able to achieve happiness, provided that his passions and interests are directed outward, not inward . . . All unhappiness depends upon some kind of disintegration or lack of integration; there is disintegration within the self through lack of coordination between the conscious and the unconscious mind; there is disintegration between the self and society, where the two are not knit together by the force of objective interests and affections. The happy man is the man who does not suffer from either of these failures of unity, whose personality is neither divided against itself nor pitted against the world. Such a man feels himself a citizen of the universe, enjoying freely the spectacle that it offers and the joys that it affords, untroubled by the thought of death because he feels himself not really separate from those who will come after him.*

It becomes clear that integration is all-important and integration is achieved through the kind of thoughts in one's head. Currently, society fails to promote certain notions which I believe are necessary to have in one's head to bring happiness to the majority of the members of our society.

Earlier I mentioned the need for a reaffirmation of such virtues as honesty, excellence, common sense and family. It seems to me that our contemporary society is very much into "cutting corners" and "avoidance" in the interest of individual comfort and pleasure. Accepting responsibility and making sacrifices to do the best thing are not much in vogue. Our society seems to be into a great deal of "bad thoughts" rooted in the "me" generation.

The notions which now need to be emphasized are as follows. There is a great need for real differences between the male and female sex to be recognized, understood and accepted. I feel that our society has created a harmful situation by "overdoing" the breaking down of male and female sex stereotypes in recent years; this has created confusion among both men and women as to a workable role and has led to family breakdown. [I believe that certain genetics just cannot be denied (Breen and Breen, 1985).]

Another notion that needs to be emphasized is the fact that we are emotional beings above all. This is a very important point which I cannot stress enough. Many, many go for years relying on their physical self to cope with the denial and abuse of their emotions (how "they really feel"). An example is the alcoholic, workaholic, or the drug-abuser. They create tremendous wear and tear on their body tissues. Sooner or later the true emotional self emerges to direct the person's life - all the repressed feelings of yesterday locked in muscles and joints suddenly rise to the surface. Often coping is very painful as one discovers one's true self. My point is that we must impress on people just how critical emotions are - driving our bodies into top physical condition or emulating "he-man" ultimately will not suppress our psyches. What helps us to cope with life in the long term are emotional "bonds" that we form - among friends, with spouse, between parent and child, etc. No man is an island. And it is our psychology that leads us to happiness or not, fuels our willpower, and eventually forces us to fact the question, "What do I stand for?" It also makes us God-fearing. Indeed the emotional self is all important.

Comments on the Schools

Schooling in these times is an extremely complex matter. From a system of twenty years ago in which goals were clear, the curriculum was stable, standards were known and maintained and jobs were the inevitable result, we have now arrived at a system characterized by ambiguity in standards, too much evaluation, too much choice and change, and the big question of relevance to the employment world. Education now suffers from "over-development" (Thom, 1985). There are several reasons for the current problems, with the most significant being that the schools are expected to do too much "total development" of the student, and politicians are interfering too much in professional decisions, leaving the professional administrators and teachers frustrated and feeling insecure.

However, schooling today, by its very confused and complex nature, creates some paradoxes. For instance, at a very practical level: I have a four-year-old daughter who has just completed prekindergarten and I admit that I am pleased with, and impressed by, the quality of teaching/learning that she received. She is learning the basics, has a very caring teacher and school principal, is developing her social skills nicely, and is happy about school. So something in this system is working. What the example of my daughter represents, I feel, is the high potential for excellence in the currently troubled system. Potentially the system is an excellent one if we harness and monitor the current positive features - its richness, diversity, accessibility and flexibility; its highly qualified teachers and administrators and excellent school facilities. Generally more discipline, better focus (not so many program choices and diverse goals), and clearer, educationally-sound standards are required.

Logically, the virtues I stated earlier as needing reaffirmation in society at large can be emphasized in our school. I do feel that students need to learn more about how to be successful fathers or mothers, and about the sacrifice and discipline involved. Recently I heard a women say that "we prepare our daughters for the wedding day but for little beyond that." Further, we must reinforce in our young people the notion that if something is wrong in a common sense way (like cheating), then "Don't Do It!" People need education to teach them to accept responsibility, follow through, and have integrity. There is a leadership crisis in our society and we need excellent leaders, including those in schools. Life really is not all about sitting back and waiting to win a million dollar Canadian lottery, to be "set for life." Students need to see beyond this to the real world.

As I have mentioned in other articles recently, we need to acknowledge more than we do that we are a Judeo-Christian-based society and that ultimately our values and hopes are tied to this background. Our society is judged by these standards. (It is interesting that two books with religious themes - Timothy Findley's *Not Wanted on the Voyage* and Leonard Cohen's *Book of Mercy* - were among winners of the 1985 Canadian Author's Association literary awards). People in our society ultimately hold in their psyche and ideal value of hard work, kindness, and integrity. This is what our world is like. It is silly to think that we can separate religion from the schools because Christianity is at the foundation of the system. No doubt in the “”me society of today it is difficult for one to accept that there is a God who comes first. Myself, I have no strong views on the current issue of expansion of funding to separate and private schools. I feel that it is more important that whoever is running the educational system must reassess the very strong contemporary emphasis on humanistic teaching" and learning strategies, being cognizant of the fact that, to be effective, learning is often painful, and individuals (especially youths) need structure and discipline to quite a degree (Ascham, 1909).

And, finally, a word about the future role of educational administrators. Following Cunningham (1964), I feel that these leaders must hold opinions on social issues generally and apply them to their school programs. Further, they need to address their intellectual energies to the impact of science and technology on schools, the perfection of ways and means of creating and maintaining purpose" in the lives of human beings in a relatively affluent society, and the construction and refinement of a government sufficiently responsive and responsible to meet the requirements of a world society (p.4). In effect, the administrators of our educational institutions should engage in social reform. There is no single institution in our society that is capable of such far-reaching social penetration as is our educational system.

Conclusion

I realize that much of what I have said about society and schools in this article has been said before by others in a variety of ways. It is not new to promote virtues such as honesty, loyalty, moderation, common sense, spiritual development, and family interest. However, in our contemporary times - characterized by complexity, high-speed change, and confusion in the eyes of so many - these virtues seem to be pushed into the background. Positive, reasoned thinking is required if the core of my model of society and teaching and learning is to be properly addressed.

Often we, as individuals, hold to notions of what is right and proper although it does not represent the majority view. We begin to wonder sometimes just "who is crazy". I hope that my article will give some support and reassurance to readers who do believe in the basic human virtues which time after time have proven their worth and validity in our society. I believe that deep, personal revolution can occur in human minds and bodies and is somewhat necessary in our current situation.

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Chapter 2

Rethinking Priorities for Family and School

There are, I feel, some quite complex and unfortunate things happening in society which increasingly are making the jobs of school teachers, administrators and parents very difficult.

Family breakdown, confusion with respect to proper values in society at large, and results such as increasing violence and drug misuse are forcing parents and school personnel to become therapists and moral educators. The task is overwhelming. Put in other broader terms, we are in a time when our culture appears to be disregarding the wisdom of the ages, the words of our parents and the authority of the church. And I feel that it is time for us to revive our personal conscience.

The situation is undoubtedly complex and confusing. But personally, I believe that the first step to solving the serious problems is clear. There needs to be a renewed emphasis on the family, and parents need to be much more responsible.

Simply put, fathers and mothers should do their best to look after their children properly. Simple? Not Really. I am fully aware of that from struggling along with my wife to raise two youngsters. Yet to me much more work on the family is the ideal and is that which is drastically needed. This really hit home to me when I recently heard a counselor speak to our Rotary Club on the Thunder Bay "Options for Youth" program, a family program for children of the chemically dependent. The most striking information was that the program had handled drug-addicted children as young as 9 years of age. How can the family problem be denied! Further, from observing student misbehaviour in classroom visits for the past ten years, I know there is a problem.

We are aware that several strong forces work against people becoming better parents and keeping the home together. Extreme discipline and unselfishness are required, and I am afraid that our contemporary 'me is most important' society does not promote these virtues enough. Also, our culture is very pluralistic and the notion of moral relativism seems to lead people to feel that any kind of behaviour including quickly deserting the home scene is quite acceptable. This is unfortunate. Furthermore, the media tend to perpetuate detrimental attitudes.

My view is that the strengthening of the family is that first key step in greatly improving our current society in general and, in particular, it is bound to enhance the quality of schooling for our children.

Chapter 3

The Importance of "Mind Set" in Educational Leadership of the Future

In recent years there have appeared in the literature of educational administration a few articles which would seem to open up a new, relevant and exciting direction for significantly increasing our understanding of leadership in the 1980s and beyond. They are William G. Walker's "Administrative Narcissism and the Tyranny of Isolation: Its Decline and Fall, 1954 - 1984" (Fall, 1984), Arthur Blumberg's "The Craft of School Administration and Some Other Rambling Thoughts" (Fall, 1984), and G. Barry Morris' "A Futuristic Cognitive View of Leadership" (Winter, 1985). These pieces stand out in the sense that they address, with unprecedented resolve, the "person" within the educational leader, one's values, beliefs, and ethics, and the actual thoughts which one has. The point is stressed that control over types of thoughts is critical. This is very valid and important.

The appearance of these articles at this time could be viewed as fitting a natural progression of ideas in the literature since 1974, yet the acceptance of educational psychologist Morris' piece by the editors of *Educational Administration Quarterly* probably "jumped ahead" the input to the progression by some time. Before 1974 the main approach to understanding the administration and organization of education was of a deductive highly prestructured nature. Straight-forward standardized questionnaires such as the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (L.B.D.Q.) and the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (O.C.D.Q.) were used to collect data which were then used to calculate statistics to test scientific hypotheses.

Systems theory (Griffiths, 1964) characterized the popular approach. As is well known now, in 1974 a dramatic event occurred. Dr. T. B. Greenfield from the Department of Educational Administration at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education presented a provocative paper at a conference of educational administrators in Bristol, England. Greenfield, who had been a strong advocate of systems, proposed that a new inductive methodology now be employed to advance the understanding of educational organizations; the deductive approach was too static and rigid. What was needed, he suggested, was an almost anthropological method, with little pre-structure , in which a researcher with pencil and diary in hand would jump into the thick of the research milieu and put all his/her senses to work. The basic assumption was that educational leadership and organization are only really understood through the manner in which individuals involved define their reality.

Greenfield's ideas were quickly labeled as representing the phenomenological or ethnographic school of thinking. His paper presentation set off spirited (and sometimes hostile) international debate about theory in educational administration, which has continued to this day. Further, his influence is evident from the multitude of studies in educational administration in the last decade which have employed the Mintzberg diary-style methodology. Professor Greenfield's intervention in 1974 has benefited the educational administration discipline in creating a thorough assessment of the nature, function, and general state of theory and in drawing academics into closer contact as they debate the issues. Further, he planted a seed which with nurturing over time has flowered into the psychologist's input on the psyche of the leader.

Since the mid-70's the quest to more fully understand leadership in education has involved anthropological, philosophical, and sociological concepts, with a building and mixing of terms such as ethnography, endomethodology, positivist paradigm, grounded theory, logical positivism, structuralism, logical empiricism, constructivist, subjectivist, critical theory, hermeneutics, Habermasian, Marcusean, and Marxist. These have defined what is referred to as "the theory movement." Some writers have been focusing on the leader's ethics, beliefs and values (Enns, 1981; Farquhar, 1981; Greenfield et. al., 1985; Hodgkinson, 1983; Sharples, 1984; Thom, 1984a; Corson, 1985; and Thom and Klassen, 1986). In effect, this represents a revival of an emphasis found in earlier management literature (e.g., Barnard, 1938; Althouse, 1952; Flower, 1958; Broudy, 1965; and Miller, 1965) but now is applied in our new and different society. It was Greenfield who presented the phenomenological base of "individual reality defining" and discussion has now brought our discipline to the logically-expected point where to understand fully contemporary educational leadership we are obtaining input from the psychologists. The focus is directly on "what makes people tick."

Writers such as G.B.Morris are on the "cutting edge" of understanding leadership of the future (Klassen and Thom, 1986). We have come through the trait/role, environment, and follower (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977) approaches to understanding and now have this emphasis on leader psyche. What these latest publications are saying is that, firstly, the leader must have a future consciousness, and second, the actual thoughts toward his task which he has day-to-day are all-important. In sum, it is important just what is inside the person's head. (This is similar to what Drucker suggests in his 1985 book.)

Now this last point may seem obvious and trivial - not very profound. However, we know that to some extent organizational and administrative theory has failed (Hodgkinson, 1978). There has been a failure to appreciate the simplicity of understanding through examining the leader's inner self. Many of the previous approaches have been broadly based on context and sociology. The psychologist's input now is a breakthrough.

It is well known in the practical/substantive sense just how important the personality of the leader is. Consider M.N. Pokrovsky's account of Lenin's power over his followers:

> *There was above all, his enormous capacity to see to the root of things, a capacity which finally awakened in me a sort of superstitious feeling. I frequently had occasion to differ from him on practical questions but I came off badly every time. When this experience had been repeated about seven times, I ceased to dispute and submitted to Lenin even if logic told me that one should act otherwise. I was henceforth convinced that he understood things better and was master of the power denied to me, of seeing about ten feet down in the earth (Wolfe, 1960: 363).*

The new literature explores mind set." It seems to make so much sense. For instance, Blumberg describes "the set" of the outstanding educational administrator:

— He has an exquisite sense of timing.
— He has a passion about his own life.
— He defines himself rather than being defined by others.
— He believes he can shape the world.
— His humour works as glue. It pulls people together.
— He has a sense of the absurd and the ability to treat absurdity as just that.
— He has a vision like the Biblical prophets.

— He is patient and knows perfectly well his vision will come in its own time.
— He has an authentic compassion.
— He has an elegant sense of history.
— His sense of optimism is such that the cup is always half full, never half empty. (Blumberg, 1984: 34).

So, so valid, It makes one feel good that our administrators could be so involved, alive and gracious. Moreover, what authors such as Morris are saying is that the leader must be able to look far ahead and he needs to have rational, optimistic belief thoughts about the future in his head. Examples of healthy beliefs cited by Morris are the following:

The idea that rapid socio-politico-economic change will continue and that stability is attained in change.

The idea that one should not become upset over failure to obtain closure but, rather, function effectively with unclosure.

The idea that since one cannot prepare for all impending change, one should instead prepare for the unanticipated.

The idea that one should not rely completely on the views of others, but, rather, on one's own sense of inner knowledge.

and,

The idea that to be effective one should always be in the process of being and becoming.

These beliefs are developed from the Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) of Albert Ellis.

I believe that this model which stresses the leader's total orientation to life is the concept of the future. We know the power of the mind and a person can believe whatever he/she wants to believe. In his recent article, "Machines: The Human Dimension (1985)," Richard E. Ripple makes a profound analysis of our modern-day society - how high technologies have invaded our lives, how techno-shock has created redefinition of everything from self to work to goodness to free will. The individual is operating in a very complex society where change is the rule, machines are highly valued, and many, many choices, but little direction, appear to be offered. And Ripple cautions from a Chinese poem, " . . . whoever uses machines does all his work like a machine. He who does his work like a machine grows a heart like a machine, and he who carries the heart of a machine in his breast loses his simplicity. He who lost his simplicity becomes unsure in the strivings of his soul (p.1)." It is fair to say that society has set a tone with which the normal human being finds it difficult to cope. Naturalness is absent, and, as Ripple says, "it is increasingly difficult to distinguish between reality and science fiction (p.2)." A type of belief which has become widespread is "the problem of an aging staff" belief; it is claimed that organizational ineffectiveness is because of aging, tiring workers. I suggest that a more positive, rational futuristic belief is required - the trouble now is that people of just forty years of age are being labeled as relatively obsolete. Surely the wisdom which accompanies aging has a significant role to play. Effective survival requires man to adopt an appropriate mind-set which transcends the environment.

The psychologists are making a significant contribution. And it is encouraging that some are Canadians, for example, Morris and Klassen. Educational administration scholars might view the current developments in understanding leadership (with the focus on the individual person) as representing a return to the 1950's social behaviour model of Getzels/Guba. However, this is to provide a dry, conservative, interpretation of things. The psychologists can provide a fuller, richer, and more imaginative views, applying the notion of an individual's "locus of control," street smartness, and therapeutic principles. There are contemporary leadership theorists who believe that understanding and dealing with "the collective neurosis" of those being led in an organization is a key element (Pugh, 1983). In essence, entire organizations need therapy. Further, it was the psychologist Abraham Maslow who devised the useful hierarchy of human needs/motivation model. Unbeknown to many, before he died apparently he tape-recorded his thoughts about adding two more needs levels above "self-actualization" - higher order need satisfaction related to one's "sense of wonder" and then, at the pinnacle, one's "sense of order". This is the kind of imaginative input which can be made in a fuller decoding of the required behaviour of educational leaders in the future. The whole area of androgeny is potentially fruitful. A return to Getzels/Guba there may be, but all scholars recognize that the model is being applied in a never before new society. The psychology people will give increased depth to the analysis of that society and the effectiveness of the new educational leader in it.

Morris calls it "inside nature" and "personal spirit". I call it "mind set". Whatever we term it, it is the crucial ingredient in what is to come. As in all human activity, a leader must build what he believes in and then protect it. In the current context of techno-shock society, the leader in education needs to first understand what is going on, then remind himself of the true, natural make-up of people in our society (for instance, our culture traditionally is a Judeo Christian-

based culture - Neuhaus, (1984) and then act out positive, realistic thoughts and hopes as he moves into the future. And the most important thought and belief must be that in the future, as has always been, teaching and learning excellence among teachers and students in classrooms is ultimately the highest priority.

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Chapter 4

Quality in Educational Administration

It is worth considering quality in contemporary educational administration. We who work in the management of education periodically need to be reminded of some original, time-proven, noble principles, on which to base our work.

There are high quality school administrators these days but I believe that there are relatively fewer than years ago and I believe that they find it extremely difficult to be as they are. The general characteristics of this type of leader are that he (or she) is extremely committed to the value of education, is well organized, and is a very hard worker who takes great pride in what he does. This individual loves children and at the root of his activity always is a consideration for impressionable students.

Recent years have brought several social, economic, and psychological phenomena which are threatening administrative quality in education:

- A strong movement which downplays the value of formal education has emerged in society. The reasons for this are many, but a key one is an impatience with the long process of attaining a sound, thorough education in a fast-moving, fast-changing world. Better to enter the job market as soon as possible. The arguments appear to have more validity when applied to post-secondary education than to the panels below this.

- The tremendous upheaval in society's values in the last 20 years has changed an acceptance of widespread conservative values which guided society for years to a tolerance for virtually any set of values. Many new notions of what constitutes "quality" have emerged. Often it is confused with quantity. Perspectives have become twisted in the education profession.

- A general vicious cycle has been created. The continual flux and rapid change in society quite naturally has entered all spheres of our culture. A type of panic could be said to have set in. The media bombard us with the unstable economic situation and so many negative things about what is happening - normal, sensitive, human beings feel a loss of patience, and anxiety and stress. Even if individuals personally can remain calm, they cannot help but be affected by their loved ones who are influenced. A sense of urgency prevails.

- Term appointments of educators is one reaction to the current state of affairs. Many arguments are put forward as to why they are a good thing, including that the appointee prefers a fixed period of employment. However, it would seem that such appointments are undesirable because they lessen a sense of security and commitment.

- Educational administration has developed two very distinct aspects, that of the culture of practitioners in the schools and that of the academics in university departments of educational administration. Despite isolated efforts by some individuals to create valuable co-operation between these two groups, some apparent unavoidable disparities remain. A practice-theory conflict, highly paper-qualified academics feeling superior, and an image of low calibre research projects all are part of the problem.

Recognizing these phenomena, a few basic suggestions on how educational administration quality might be improved are now forwarded. Foremost, truly genuine human beings are required in the administrative posts. They need to be mature and idealistic, yet realistic about the need for their staff to feel secure in their work. Further, they must recognize the fact that people age and cannot just be discarded at a certain point using something like the term appointment scheme as convenient. Realistic and skilled these leaders need be, too, in setting and evaluating reasonable and relevant objectives for their organizations and people. Finally, educational administration academics can contribute to improvement by breaking down the practice-theory conflict attitude that exists between them and practitioners and by conducting research that truly has a chance of advancing the discipline.

Currently, considerable pessimism and lack of imagination abounds in the management of education. There seems to be a strong element of "who cares about quality or no quality, anyway?" Also, among leaders many important problems have appeared - executive stress, abuse of alcohol and drugs, and severe family problems.

We need to care about excellence in educational leadership. Formal education is of value, and it needs to be directed well - our children are too important to sell short. The hope is for administrators with vision, integrity and balance in their lives. I strongly suggest that leaders of education need spirituality and a great capacity for love. (Riffel and Sharples also have written on this.) Undoubtedly this idea will not gain quick acceptance, but I believe that this is how ultimately great gains in our schooling systems are to be made.

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Chapter 5

Reassessing Computerization

In our schools today we see many machines being used to enhance the teaching and learning process - copying machines, projectors, office sorting machines, television teaching units, and various types of computers. Recently schools have acquired a good number of microcomputers - with which students, teachers and administrators will spend large amounts of time interacting. This machine technology, this "computerization" of education, needs to be reassessed.

The introduction of technology into our educational systems seems to have grown from the Sputnik era of the late 1950s. North American educators realized that machines could conquer the environment and many believed that to develop technology rapidly would improve the quality of life and help the human condition. Thus from the 1960s onwards we have witnessed an expansion of science and technology enterprises in our society and schools. Some of this is beneficial but some of it, I believe, is not.

There is no doubt that equipment such as copiers, word processors, sorters, and computers serve very useful purposes - notably that they greatly reduce the time required to accomplish tasks. Further, many provide neatly formatted output and save people from having to do certain types of busy work. For instance, a computer that files and prints out student records or one from which library holdings can be accessed, or one which issues form letters or salary cheques is a great help.

Yet, there are aspects of computerization that are of increasing concern for their potentially harmful effects. To be specific, I am most concerned about the large amounts of time that students spend in front of microcomputers both in school and at home. Adults, too. And if it is not a microcomputer, it is a television set or a video game. To me, time spent with these machines is time taken away from interacting with other human beings.

I do value the contribution that microcomputers make - in fact my own background includes making significant use of computers. It is the inordinate amount of time people are spending with these machines that prompts my concern. As an intellectual I feel that humans are meant to relate to nature and be social beings. As an educator, I believe that the human dynamic of teacher interrelating with student is the most important factor in the teaching and learning process. An overemphasis on machines and technology generally is putting these things at risk.

Others share my feelings. Jacques Ellul (*The Technological Society*, 1954) and Buckminster Fuller (in *Critical Path*, 1981) have warned that technology and techniques can take over society and stifle individual human sensitivities and development. More recently, Culbertson ("Leadership Horizons in Education", EAQ, summer 1983) discussed the threats to individual self-realization that our contemporary information society poses. And, of course, don't forget what Orwell, Toffler and Naisbitt have to say.

My ideas will be unpopular with many people. There are those in society who hold strong vested interests in the technology of today - jobs, investments, hobbies, as examples. They will tend to dismiss my ideas as coming from just another academic following the traditional role of criticizing society. Who are you, they might ask, to suggest interfering with the natural development of society? We live in a pluralistic, free society. Don't be so serious - "go with the flow" and enjoy. Also, they might wonder if spending time with books does not have just as serious effects as with machines. To this I would respond that books are more like a person in that they often have a character, can be taken at the reader's pace, can come alive, and are unpredictable. Personal human qualities are enhanced.

In the end I am concerned about the dehumanizing effect which the "computerization" of education can have. We should be aware of how we may be swept up in technology, operating at a pace that is inappropriate for the human organism and for the development of human values and spirit. Stress and nervous breakdowns are logical outcomes. People can become machine "addicts" taken over by electronic "toys" in a distracting and noisy world. Besides, in teaching do we not often use machines out of laziness and for expediency? If so, this is unfortunate.

It is a basic question of values and I believe that the priority should be a human being who develops his key lasting qualities from interaction with other human beings. I am not suggesting a wholesale ignoring of inevitable technology. I am suggesting that we use its products with moderation, that we harness the computer and regularly check our purposes and gains in utilizing machines.

Chapter 6

Educational Administration Theory Development Into the 1980's:

A Practical Academic's Assessment

> . . . with advancing years the novelist [author] grows less and less inclined to describe more than his own experience has given him.
>
> — W. Somerset Maugham's *Cakes and Ale*, p. 137.

In the educational administration literature of recent years there has been an upheaval with respect to ideas about theory. Many new theories are being proposed by a variety of authors. This article is a comment on the usefulness and importance of these things. A comprehensive bibliography appears at the end.

The Scenario

A general summary of the flow of ideas in "the new theory movement" of educational administration is as follows: in 1974 at the Third International Inter-Visitation Programme on Educational Administration in Bristol, England, T. B. Greenfield of The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (Toronto, Canada) presented a criticism of the accepted theories of educational administration with his paper, "Theory in the Study of Organizations and Administrative Structures: A New Perspective". Up until 1974 the main theorists of educational administration were Americans such as Andrew Halpin, Jacob Getzels, Egon Guba, Roald Campbell, Donald Willower, Jack Culbertson, Daniel Griffiths, Thomas Sergiovanni, James Lipham, J. Walton and Jean Hills, Australians such as William Walker and A. R.

Crane, and a few Britons such as George Baron, William Taylor, and Meredydd Hughes. Their theories could be classified generally as of positivistic behavioural science or as "highly structured prior to application." Greenfield, the Canadian, called for inductive theories. He believed that the appropriate way to describe, explain and predict phenomena in organizations is to ask the people in a particular organization about the meaning that the organization has for them. His approach was not new to science for it was common in fields such as anthropology.* The theoretical approaches up until 1974 were generally termed *hypothetico-deductive* and Greenfield's was termed *phenomenological.*

T. B. Greenfield's comments set off a great wave of reactions which has continued up until today. Initially Daniel Griffiths and Jean Hills, systems theory advocates, aggressively and bitterly attacked his ideas. They seemed very threatened by what appeared to be a "loose" methodological approach being proposed by Greenfield. Greenfield responded, increasingly drawing in names like Feigl and Kuhn and the classic philosophers to support his views. Both parties appeared regularly in the literature in what became termed "the Greenfield-Griffiths debate" and "the Greenfield-Hills debate". Then others began writing (e.g., Crane and Walker, 1976; Hughes, 1976; Hobbs and Bruce, 1977-1978; Kendell and Byrne, 1977; and Deblois, 1979). There was a building and mixing of terminology – ethnography, endomethodology, positivist paradigm, grounded theory, logical positivism, structuralism, logical empiricism, constructivist, subjectivist, critical theory, hermeneutics, Habermasian, Marcusean, Marxist, and so on. Some writers felt insulted; others seemed jealous, particularly of Greenfield who had presented his ideas when he did. Griffiths, after a lengthy, strong defence of his systems approach was finally convinced by Greenfield so that he wrote in 1977:

> I shall argue that the paradigm presently used in educational administration is neither useful nor appropriate because it is no

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*Over the years models from several fields have been proposed for understanding educational administration and organization; a medical (internship-style) model (Schwab, 1964); a biological systems model (Haire, 1975); a mathematical model (Hage); and perhaps Walker (1980) is inferring an agricultural model with his "took the bull by the horns" comment (p.209).

> longer fruitful in generating powerful concepts and hypotheses, does not allow us to describe either modern organizations or people in them, and as a result, is not helpful to administrators (p.1).

Some appeared to ignore Greenfield. For instance, Willower did not mention Greenfield in his 1975 article, "Theory in Educational Administration"; in more recent years he and Culbertson have given acknowledgement in their writings. Also, the Canadian has been visibly absent as a main contributor to several recent books on educational administration internationally, e.g., Farquhar and Housego (1980) and Gray (1982).

The "theory movement" continues. Griffiths, Hills, and Greenfield keep publishing. More recently, Gronn (1982), Gray (1982), Bates (1982), Allison (1983), and Lane (1983) have entered the debates.

My Reaction

As a practical academic I value the usefulness of theoretical ideas. The "theory movement" has been useful but not as much as would be suggested by the volume of literature devoted to it since 1974.

T. B. Greenfield deserves much credit for having stirred up the thinking of academics in educational administration. Traditionally our discipline has been quite "dry" as to stimulation. A new solidarity among our academics from different countries has been created as the phenomenology issue has been lively debated. It seems that ten years ago the American educational administration scholars formed a clique, the Canadians and Australians interacted considerably, and Britain and other countries boasted just a few intellectuals in this discipline. Now there is ample interaction all round. An example is the relatively recent happening of *Educational Administration Quarterly* (U.S.A.) and the *Journal of Educational Administration* (Australia) deciding to collaborate on manuscripts. This represents the development of a closer relationship between The University Council for Educational Administration and The Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration. I believe that the discussion generated by Greenfield created most of this new solidarity. It also resulted in a thorough assessment of the nature and state of theory in the discipline of educational adminstration.

But, from a content point of view there has been too much ado. The essence of Greenfield's presentation in 1974 was to call for more use of an inductive person-focused approach to research in educational administration and organization. This concept had been suggested by some before him, e.g., Schwab, 1964, p.55 and Walker, 1973, p.3, to name a few, but Greenfield seems to have said it more clearly, more forcibly, in a more thorough fashion, and at an opportune time. From this simple essence has emerged voluminous publications, often repetitive, confusing administration and organization theory, and often misinterpreting Greenfield's statements or failing to credit him with ideas about phenomenology which he introduced into the literature. The more recent extrapolations to Marxist thought and critical theory still are based on the root idea of asking people in educational institutions to define their reality. Yet pages and pages are produced. The influence of the sociologist writers is seen.

I do not pretend to have studied the likes of phenomenology and critical theory in depth. However, my knowledge of the complexion of the theory and practice of educational administration is significant. My sense is that the advocates of these anthropologically and sociologically-based approaches have lost sight of the basic nature of the management of educational institutions. These writers write lengthy accounts on the validity of critical theory (often referred to as the "new sociology") in educational administration – reflecting on the fact that education is permeated with rituals, metaphors and negotiations which should be understood in the processes of rationalization, legitimation, and motivation involved in schooling (e.g., Bates, 1982, p. 6). Both in phenomenology and critical theory the emphasis is on how the individuals in organizations understand and are involved in these things just mentioned. However it seems that the critical theory approach, unlike phenomenology, associates with a strong, negative value judgement. That is to say that the critical theorists assume that the current rituals, metaphors, and so on in education are detrimental to the individuals involved. For instance, it is believed that schooling as it presently operates, takes away the dignity of teachers and assists mainly students from families in the higher social strata of society to obtain the best education and the best positions in society; this is supposedly because the social, culture, and economic elites (including educational administrators) control educational processes (Lane, 1983, p. 4). A shared view of reality has brought these people together. Thus a type of cultural reproduction occurs – father elite to son elite.

Now every genuine academic appreciates and enjoys new ideas and debates. They exercise the mind and are interesting. This is true of the phenomenology and critical theory material in the educational administration literature. This has given us fresh insights – but insights with which *to understand* education and educational administration much more than into how *to change* these things. This is an important point which would help sort out much of the apparent confusion in the literature.

Sociologists, by definition, are expected to provide reflective, penetrating analysis of society and its institutions. In other words they help us to understand. But their ideas often do not give us practical, relevant ways as to how to change things. And so it seems with the anthropological/sociological ideas which have entered the literature of educational administration in the past ten years. The ideas are interesting but generally they do not speak to the real activity of educational administration. Yet several authors appear to think that they do (e.g., Bates, Gronn). Granted, what these authors are promoting is that there be more use of inductive, person-focused type methodologies in studies of educational administration. So in this instance they are speaking ultimately to the theory of educational administration. But this suggestion is nothing new or profound – it has been promoted in different terms for years. To continue, to me it is the *practice* of educational administration which defines our discipline's core, including the suggestion of the most appropriate theories; theory and practice are intricately connected (recalling John Dewey's "there is nothing more practical than a good theory") and I feel that academics must clearly know the essence of educational administration practice to validate any theories which they are about to propose and this is where the "new sociologists" fall down.

To get right to the point, the basic nature of the day-to-day practice of educational administration is that it is decision action-oriented, involves a hectic pace, and is guided by considerable structure both in physical plant and processes. Practitioners daily need to take charge within policy guidelines and are very aware of their accountability – this is the reality. The critical theorists argue that the underpinnings of education from which these structures and policies flow (the norms, values, sanctions, and so on) are wrong and they must be changed. It is valuable and interesting for these people to describe these underpinnings but I feel that they sell short practising educational administrators as to their intelligence and maturity. It is unfair to depict these leaders generally as actively oppressive elites. Many of them have years of life and career experience and have studied very seriously. Many are sensitive individuals who understand the organizational framework in which they work. They realize that there are drawbacks and they lead as best they can.

The proponents of the new sociology *may* be misguided idealists with regard to attempting to forcefully apply their ideas to educational administration. They seem to think that the world can be perfect. And, like so many critics, they do not offer concrete, relevant, real-world alternatives to the current situation (Lane, 1983). What they appear to be suggesting is a wholesale revolution within the education culture, obscurely-defined as to means and ends, in the interest of "a commitment to struggle in the interest of a better world" (Bates, 1982, p. 12). What use is this in the difficult, immediate task of the administration of education as it really is?

An alternative, fairer way to view the current education culture is to give some credit to former and current educators for shaping the system in the best way they could/can, responding to the democratic majority-view reality of public demands and supports for structure through which to deliver the schooling service and while realizing that the world is imperfect and "you cannot please everybody". Appreciate that many educational administrators are informed experienced professionals who do understand the rituals, metaphors, and negotiations, and other things of which the new sociologists speak. These leaders do not deny that there are problems and the most that we should ask is that they keep an open mind as to making changes when appropriate and in as democratic a way as possible. Many of these executives are as aware of the fact that understanding is personally experienced as are the phenomenologists, but their mature approach is to have faith (sometimes *religious* faith), to keep an open mind and to get in there and try, not to have a quick devastating revolution. These educational administrators strive for an appropriate "functional structuralism", if you will, and rightly so.

Some Predictions and Suggestions

My prediction is that many pieces stemming from T. B. Greenfield's presentation on phenomenology in 1974 will continue to appear in the literature of educational administration into the 1980's. This would be because academics in our discipline have not been so stirred to express their views before Greenfield (there was little excitement previously) and because selected writers, e.g., Culbertson and Willower, appear to have a type of monopoly in getting their ideas published and they tend to generate a large amount of material. The great volume of publications is not warranted when one considers that the basic point about having both an inductive and deductive approach has been strongly made. It is correct that since 1974 there has been a type of progressive development of ideas in the literature ranging through the Greenfield-Griffiths-Hills systems theory debate, to an in-depth presentation of logical positivism, to debate on functional imperatives (Hills and Willower), to a claim of neo-Taylorism (Gronn), to a broad historical overview of theory in educational administration (Culbertson, 1983), to the recent Bates-Lane critical theory discourse. Of late, Sergiovanni and Corbally's *Leadership and Organizational Culture: New Perspectives on Administrative Theory and Practice* has appeared.

The material will continue to appear but I believe that history will reveal that much of it was repetitive, redundant, and even somewhat "silly". Probably the majority of the original authors eventually will reach a point where they do not know what to do next because the very nature of a phenomenological/experiential/unstructured approach reflects a symptom of modern society of discarding structure and time-established principles and values in the face of rapid change, confusion, and information overload believing that this will provide improvements; many choice alternatives are offered, but little direction, and after some time those involved can reach a disillusioned, drifting state. [It has been my observation that this also happens to many who get involved in the experientially-based activity of organization development (O.D.)]. The writers might avoid this outcome if they were to follow the root phenomenological base of "individual reality defining" to the logical implied conclusion that in the end human leaders and their organizational subordinates may only truly be understood through knowing what generally "makes people tick" – and I suggest we would be best to re-examine and expand the Freudian ideas of oral, anal, and genital instincts for this (see Jones, 1953). Maccoby (1981) is on the track here in his analysis of mother long term influences (such as creation of narcissistic tendencies and the need "to prove something") in those who lead. As well, there is Christie et al.'s *Studies in Machiavellianism* in the psychology literature. A look at the total emotional spiritual aspect of the person (Thom, 1984) is in order. But alas, I doubt whether the literature in our field will head this potentially fruitful way. (It is felt among some contemporary organizational theorists that an understanding of "the collective neurosis" of the people in institutions is a useful approach).

The theory movement is producing and should continue to produce several valuable results. Firstly, is the increased acceptance of the phenomenological *method* in research – there is now less thinking along the lines that researchers choose this less structured approach because they are "afraid of numbers and statistics" or they are lazy. Second, students of educational administration and their professors have a much better understanding of the nature and extent of theory in the discipline. A third result is that the discipline is enjoying increased intellectual status from delving into such a thorough theory discussion and, as previously mentioned, a new solidarity among academics is being achieved.

There are several suggestions for future development. To continue the discussion of theory, as mentioned above I believe that to move in the direction of studying basic instincts/motivations in administrators would be relevant and rewarding. In effect this would somewhat be reintroducing the trait approach of old but it could be elaborated with a focus on genetic determination of human outcomes and even brain research. Another possibility would be to expand the literature to a discussion of the implications of the various theoretical thoughts, e.g., critical theory, for policy development in education.

Considering what is future worthwhile activity in educational administration study on the whole, I also make some suggestions. It is my feeling that *through teaching our subject* one becomes best aware of important topics. For instance, the veteran lecturer will have discovered that content can be generally presented under the following headings: structures and roles, educational finance, educational law, politics of education, research and development, and change and the future. Moreover, the classroom interaction with practitioner students soon brings us a knowledge of their needs and concerns, and teaching necessitates a clear, concise stating of information. When those who write give up teaching they soon can lose perspective on the salient themes.

I suggest that we need increasing literature on techniques in educational administration, such as time management, evaluating and developing personnel and programs, delegating responsibility, and handling stress generally[*] and balancing work and domestic life specifically. Simulation exercise material can be very useful (e.g., Bolton, 1971). Further, leaders need help with how to maintain motivation and creativity, learning their personal limits, staying playful, learning how to lose control when appropriate, learning how to focus on what matters and is positive, and developing their sensitivities.

I feel that ultimately the best literature whether directly on theory or otherwise, is that which is best for teaching. For example, over my years of teaching educational management I have found the following to be excellent materials: Charles Perrow's "The Short and Glorious History of Organizational Theory" (1973); Peter M. Blau's "Theory and Development of Bureaucracy", Chapter 2 in *Bureaucracy in Modern Society* (1962); Knowles and Saxberg's "Human Relations and the Nature of Man" (1970); Chris Argyris' "The Individual and Organization: Some Problems of Mutual Adjustment" (1957); Daniel I. Stufflebeam et al.'s *Educational Evaluation and Decision Making* (1971); Chester I. Barnard's *The Functions of the Executive* (1938); J. Victor Baldridge's "Organizational Change: The Human Relations Perspective versus The Political Systems Perspective" (1972); French and Bell's *Organization Development* (1973); Alan Lakein's *How to Get Control of Your Time and Life* (1973); David Krathwohl's *How to Prepare a Research Proposal* (1977); Wilfred J. Brown's *Education Finance in Canada* (1980); T. E. Giles' "Legal Liability of Teachers", Chapter 7 in *Educational Administration in Canada* (1978); and David Easton's

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[*] A suggested topic here is that of the increasingly common temporomandibular joint (TMJ) distress among executives whereby very painful jaw joints and facial muscles develop from prolonged stress clenching (see Gelb, 1977).

"An Approach to the Analysis of Political Systems" (1957). The type of recent valuable article that we need much more of is like Jack Culbertson's "Leadership Horizons in Education" in *Educational Administration Quarterly*, Summer, 1983 in which he contributes new practically-relevant ideas on the implications of our contemporary information society for education and its leadership. What characterizes all these abovementioned items is that they are unified, coherent, thorough and concise. In general we need fresh, vigorous approaches in the literature on both practice and theory themes.

The educational administration theory development which we have been witnessing in the literature has limited value. The particular presentation of phenomenology and critical theory we see is directing us to the familiar, often irreconcilable dichotomous themes of individual versus group and nature/nurture. A superficial consideration of language, meaning, and metaphor does this. In other words it most likely produces little concrete that speaks to the enhancement of the real work of leading in education. Perhaps critical theory *per se* is not suitable for application to educational administration. If theory is indeed to describe, explain, and predict phenomena then it would seem that in our discipline our movement is best toward techniques (including in structuring) and the use of personality, courage, and common sense.

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Chapter 7

Education "Worth Having":

What are the Fundamentals?

Since the 1960s society has witnessed a tremendous development of knowledge. Technology, especially the speed of computers, has been a key factor, as well as the fact that we have become generally more affluent and "comfortable" with more time for thought. Not everyone agrees on the value of this new knowledge. It does not necessarily contribute to "wisdom" in the traditional sense. In an effort to gain more insight I took a brief survey of my graduate students in the phenomenological research methods course. But first, an overview of existing ideas.

There are a multitude of interpretations of life and our world which individuals hold. They range through the following focuses: biological science, physical science, social/behavioural science, religion, and the occult, and they are identified with such continuing debates as "evolution versus creation", "individual versus group", "means versus ends", "theory versus practice", and "nature versus nurture". Further, some represent a short-term view whereas others the long-term. On the surface, complexity rules and it is clear that there is no single valid approach. Whereas the physical scientist sees the future as dependent on new discoveries about "gravity", the psychologists speak about "left" and "right brain" advances and such concepts as "emotion" and "willpower".

Of course great minds from Aristotle (384-322 B.C.), Galileo (1564-1642), and Gregor Mendel (1822-1884) to Charles Darwin (1809-1882) and Albert Einstein have struggled with these interpretations for centuries. And just where are we at? Following is a summary of what would appear to be some basics for living in the 1980s. They are categorized under "truths and "myths":

Truths

— the earth is part of a greater universe
— we all die
— the carbon cycle and photosynthesis are givens
— regular physical activity is important
— the person and the environment together are important in understanding
— times change
— everyone is selfish at times
— people are judged by what they do
— our society is judged by Judeo-Christian standards
— actions are important
— critics are inevitable; one cannot please everyone
— there are some people who will let you down
— we can't be equal and excellent too
— human relationships are difficult
— love and family are critical
— it is important to care for the environment
— time heals
— nature is therapeutic
— a person needs ideals to survive

Myths

— technological development necessarily leads to good outcomes
— a person's formal education and intelligence are correlated
— cooperation is a stronger emphasis in society than competition
— money is everything
— men and women get along easily

A Survey

To test some of these ideas a class of M. Ed. summer school students were asked to comment on the question: of all the education acquired to date, what is the information that you feel is the most valuable to have? The sample were comprised of senior teachers and school administrators with a variety of specialties. The following themes summarize their answers: English; "Mathematics"; "Home Economics"; "Physical Education for the lessons it teaches"; "humility"; and "say little, watch lots". Said with much reflection and sincerity. Science per se is noticeably missing from the list. Interesting.

Final Comment

An exercise such as are done in this article is ambitious but not fruitless. In a pluralistic society that more and more offers a multitude of choices but little direction, it is important for the individual to periodically consider one's personal life view and just what one "stands for". Whether they be from great minds like H.G. Wells or William James or not, we all need principles to work from. E.C. Kelly presents six circumstances fundamental to human coping: other people, good communication, a loving relationship, a workable concept of self, freedom and a chance to be creative. Of course others would have a physical science point of view and others would be more specific.

what works can best be understood when body, mind, and spirit together are acknowledged, as well as the importance of will, conscience, emotion, and personal discipline. Further, more appreciation needs to be afforded the Judeo–Christian value base and the wonder of nature. The M. Ed. students allude to these concepts. It is important to realize that politics and the media, especially, can distort what is fundamental for the human organism to thrive. The education system has a responsibility to promote what is truly of value.

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Chapter 8

The Spiritual Factor in Educational Administration (to make great gains in our school systems)

"The best lack all conviction, while the worst are full of passionate intensity." Yeats was possessed of a gloomy but not uncommon foreboding about our times when he wrote those lines, anticipating a joyless Second Coming by some rough, unknown, slouching beast. Can one have convictions of a spiritual sort without the passionate intensity that is associated - in the minds of many - with the word "religious"? The difficulty, in Thom's view, has delayed too long the recognition that people in positions of leadership in education cannot manage their full responsibilities on technique alone. They must have conviction about the rightness of what they do, a conviction communicated to those working with and under them; and education must be animated once more by the idea of service. He cites a number of current thinkers and practitioners who maintain, as he does, that being spiritual is a necessary condition for the really effective administrator.

> You have lost your subject when you have lost his inclination; you are to preside over the minds, not the bodies of men. The soul is the essence of a man; and you cannot have the true man against his inclination.
>
> Sir Walter Raleigh to a Young Prince.

We live in a fast, complex world, it is clear. And inevitably this characterizes our organizations - fast and complex - and the nature of managerial work. This, particularly with a disproportionate emphasis on the economic aspect of things has created a troubled current situation with respect to leadership of our educational institutions.

Education is an extremely important activity in a society. Educators have profound effects on our impressionable young children and on keen mature student learners, effects which contribute to these individuals' future lives and to the current and future fabric of the total society. But, being as objective as possible, we see many behaviours on the part of contemporary educational administrators which just do not seem proper. Many administrators seem not to approach the managing of their employees, the teachers, with an air of human decency and a belief that humans can develop to a desired end with guidance and time.

Specifically, many teachers are made to feel insecure, through being hired on short-term appointments and by an administrative overemphasis on teacher evaluation. Often they are assigned to teach in subject areas for which they are not formally trained and are asked to retrain for these subjects, usually through summer or extramural courses. Behind all this we find that many educational administrators are operating from a hedonistic base, trying to strengthen personal power or planning a next career move upwards, thinking greedy, and carefully collecting written documents to protect themselves if challenged by their superordinates. Generally they do not support their staff members, but use arguments about economic constraints, changing student numbers, general turbulence, and potential teacher redundancy to keep their employees at bay. Does all this seem unrealistic? Not from my experience.

Developing this article

Several things provided the motivation to prepare this article. First, in a series of my published articles over the past few years and in my teaching of the management of education, I have been calling for good interpersonal relations development and for more humanism. These ideas have been well received; in actual practice, however, I see school system problems escalating. Then, it struck me that something more than "interpersonal relations" and "humanistic approaches" is the key to greatness in educational management.

It seemed to me that the idea of an educational leader's being "religious" had not been impressed on me in my graduate training or through the literature. I could recall selected articles in publications by the Roman Catholic-based schools in Canada which linked religion and administrative behaviour. Certainly I had never thought of my professors of educational administration as being religious. Oh, I do remember a developing interest area in our discipline in the 1970's called "Ethics in Administration", which included ideas about moral behaviour in educational administration; however efforts to organize and hold a conference on the theme failed, and there was a flippant comment from a senior Educational

Administration colleague: "Do any of us **really** care about this sort of thing?"

I began reflecting on the various suggestions which have appeared in the literature in recent years on how to upgrade educational leadership to meet the educational problems of our times. Much of this literature presents ideas on "how to cope", and predictably, the suggestions put emphasis either on the administrator (about traits or job description), on the setting, or on some technique or process.

The suggestions and opinions are many and varied. Together they encompass the many different schools of thought on administrative approaches - classical theory, human relations, behaviour, systems, and so on. And they represent both the mechanistic and organic conceptions of organizations. Each of the suggestions has merit in the appropriate context. Yet this does beg an intriguing question: is there one particular idea which is a necessary condition for effective educational administration in the 1980's, a concept that applies universally?

For some time my writings and my thinking had been striving for a clearer idea of just what I mean by the "spiritual factor". I **do** know that it is something inside the leader himself - I had thought that it is such a thing as an "inner calm" which is employee-contagious (February, 1979) or a "genuine, authentic humaneness" (Fall, 1979) or a "courage based on lofty educational, practical, and moral ideals". (March, 1981 and November, 1981) Offhand I could think of others who have put forward similar ideas in the management literature (McGregor; Perrow; Farquhar; Sergiovanni; Greenfield; Gilbert, et al.; Argyris; Mayo; even Drucker). In recent years administration texts have had a general flavour of "humanistic approaches".

I had decided at one point that what I meant is that the leader must be a religious individual, a person who actively and sincerely uses "good Christian practices" in dealing with employees, the "do unto others" concept. But I needed some more time and discussion with others before I could really detail this thing. Two happenings helped.

First, I prepared an article entitled "What **Really** Motivates Today's Workers?", because of my belief that the literature on human work motivation needs to be updated to suit modern times. It emerged that many contemporary workers in many parts of the world seem to be motivated primarily by money, fun, and sex (M, F, and S). It did appear that some, especially older employees, are motivated by such things as job challenge, autonomy, prestige, and responsibility, but mostly I found my discussion calling for managers to implement practices which cater to the satisfaction of M, F, and S needs in their employees. Something seemed amiss; it seemed to be a sad commentary on the conditions surrounding modern-day management efforts. Surely loftier ideals should come to bear.

"Why do many administrators give up"

Then I was invited in March 1982, with a dozen others, to attend a three-hour discussion session with Professor Derek Pugh of the London Business School, visiting Hong Kong, on the general theme of "The current state of organization and management studies." The invitees had come from the University of Hong Kong, the Chinese University of Hong Kong, and from the local business community. After they had each in turn described his or her current work, Professor Pugh eventually came to his presentation. He spoke specifically to some of the invitees' remarks, making suggestions or asking for clarification. Then he made some general comments on changes in recent years in the study of organizational behaviour, and he delineated, as he sees it, five developing thrusts in organizational and management activities: increasing cross-cultural work; power and political processes having become the major explanatory variables in organizational behaviour; a rising interest in inter-organizational behaviour; an intensifying examination of the external control of organizations; and a resurgence of subjectivism. He presented the prevalent view of organization as "the collective neurosis of its members", and the critical (Marxist) approach that our organizations are rooted in class conflict.

Points in Professor Pugh's presentation prompted one of the seminar participants to ask him why, especially in recent years, management and organization personnel have been quick to abandon certain approaches (e.g., a particular management style) and to grasp another approach, abandon it, grasp another... and so on. This participant wondered if there was not some basic core, or essence, to consistent success in management, one which perhaps cut across the total spectrum of possible approaches. "Why do we see so many administrators who have 'given up'?" he asked.

Pugh took some time to think about the point and eventually suggested something to the effect that change and "giving up" are products of our current culture. There was a silence. No other participant had a comment, so I made mine. I humbly suggested that I felt that the answer lies in something within the modern-day administrator himself - a lack of faith, or religion, or spirit, if you wish. I elaborated slightly as to a connection between possessing "spirit" and attaining success, and I sensed that I had intrigued the participants, even Pugh. In that plenary group a few then supported my point by recalling references in literature to at least the general notion of "organizations as a religion", for instance, in Chester Barnard's The Functions of the Executive. And after the seminar, several invitees individually confided to me that they felt that, "You are on to something very important."

What is the "spiritual factor"?

Generally my next step was to examine suggested references carefully. Several authors whose work I felt was worth a review came to mind, namely Mason Haire on "the biological model for social organizations" and Matthew Miles with his notion of "organizational health". There seemed to be some promise in this type of material which drew analogies between organizations and the human being (body, mind, and spirit). Through discussions with others over a period of weeks following, my ideas grew. It was suggested that I look at Ellul's The Technological Society and some of the works of C.S. Lewis.

My idea of what I meant by "the spiritual factor" had somewhat crystallized. However, I was becoming increasingly aware of my limitations. I am not formally trained as a theologian, philosopher, anthropologist, or sociologist, or as a psychologist, historian, or cross-cultural researcher. Yet my topic requires delving into the content and approaches of these areas. On frequenting the library to search particular references I would be painfully reminded of my potential deficiencies as I passed shelves containing large sets of volumes of such things as The Journal of Theological Studies or volumes of anthropological materials - materials which I had not examined and which realistically I never would be able to examine. Impressive new books were continually appearing, such as Hofstede's Culture's Consequences (1980), based on longitudinal cross-cultural studies of value systems, containing sections on management approaches and comparative religions, and using framework concepts unfamiliar to me such as Power Distance and Uncertainty Avoidance. Who was I to think that my ideas could worthily be put alongside the ideas of the many great management theorist minds of both the present and the past? Finally, I am not personally a devoutly religious person, and this might matter. These limitations could keep me from validly developing my concept of "spiritual" into a concept of religion in a pure and formal sense.

In my view at this time, the educational administrator who possesses "the spiritual factor" is hardworking, adequately trained, committed, works "smart", likes people; is well-meaning, confident, has vision and imagination, is empathetic, reasonable, witty, courteous, courageous, and action-oriented; maintains integrity, is a good listener, is generous, a supporter and facilitator; is realistic yet idealistic, rational yet creative and emotional, keen and sure yet anxious, and definitely natural and genuine. Above all, this leader has a sense of decency, dignity, and development with respect to others, looks on others as resources and opportunities rather than as problems, costs, and threats, and strives to produce an honest community of educators all engaged in zestful enterprise. Finally, I know that hope and faith (in something) in the face of ambiguity is involved.

Many would say that the person just described is a religious person in the true sense of the word. He or she is a good Christian using good Christian practices ("do unto others...") in dealing with subordinates. I know educational administrators who fit the description above who definitely are not religious, and I know some who are called religious who do not fit the description.

Barnard

Across the established literature related to organizations and management (McGregor, Follet, Mayo, Bakke, Maslow, Haire, March, Sergiovanni, Herzberg, Argyris, Perrow, Likert, Homans, Bennis, Halpin, Miles, and so on) one finds concepts and terminology which give support to the idea of "the spiritual factor". Commonly referred to are the following: esprit; morale; optimism; commitment; calm; the affective; the humanistic (Maslow uses "eupsychian"); maintenance; self-worth; self-actualization; self-renewal; re-vitalization; and faith. Henri Fayol (1949) recommends that administrators cultivate "esprit de corps", a harmony and union or cohesiveness among the employees of a concern which effects great strength in that concern. One suggestion he makes is that a manager should aim for a workable situation in which he gives his subordinates oral rather than written directions or explanations whenever possible, because face-to-face contacts make for speed, clarity, and harmony.

The works of Chester Barnard and Jacques Ellul are of special significance. Barnard's book The Functions of the Executive (1938) has a profundity about it which previously I had not realized. First, as a participant at the Pugh seminar had mentioned, Barnard did hold a general "organization as a religion" type of view. He says:

"... organization is a new entity. You cannot get organization by adding up the parts. They are only one aspect of it. To understand the society you live in, you must **feel** organization - which is exactly what you do with your non-logical minds - about your nation, the state, your university, your church, your community, your family."(p.317)

Again:

"Such a story (the story of man in society) calls finally for a declaration of faith... I believe that the expansion of cooperation and the development of the individual are mutually dependent realities, and that a due proportion or balance between them is a necessary condition of human welfare. Because it is subjective with respect both to a society as a whole and to the individual, what this proportion is I believe science cannot say. It is a question for philosophy and religion."(p.296)

At several points Barnard suggests that he believes that the best leaders are religious in the true sense of the word.

"Executive responsibility, then, is that capacity of leaders by which, reflecting attitudes, ideals, hopes, derived largely from without themselves, they are compelled to bind the wills of man to the accomplishment of purposes beyond their immediate ends, beyond their times... when these purposes are high and the wills of many men of many generations are bound together they live boundlessly."(pp.283-84)

Ellul

Jacques Ellul in The Technological Society calls for a re-examination of what he describes as the essential tragedy of a civilization increasingly dominated by technique. He puts forceful emphasis upon the erosion of moral values brought about by technicism (referring not only to machine technology but to any complex of standardized means for attaining often carelessly-examined ends). The society becomes, not the expression of the will of the people nor a divine creation, but an enterprise providing services that must be made to function efficiently. Politics revolves around what is useful rather than what is good. Ellul sees every part of a technical civilization responding to the social needs generated by technique itself, and progress then consisting in progressive de-humanization. Men suffer from a spiritual privation.

Jacques Ellul's therapy for the technical disease which he sees as pervading society, including the activity of management, is Christian therapy - whereby one affirms one's freedom through the revolutionary nature of one's religion. His book seems utterly fascinating. He is a sociologist of significant interdisciplinary perspective, and my particular training and experience put limits on the extent to which I can delve into his specialty. Suffice it to say that Ellul's book is very readable and extremely thought-provoking; modern administrators would do well to read and to contemplate. I believe that it follows from what he presents that a truly effective administrator must be religious. Ellul actively encourages recognition of "the extraordinary power of spiritual resistance to technical invasion of which human beings are capable," and exclaims, "It does not seem that those sources of vital energy which might be summarized as sexuality, spirituality, and capacity for feeling have been impaired."(p.415)

Administration without soul

Generally, now, I believe that administration does have a soul. Earlier in this article the general characteristics of an educational administrator who possessed "the spiritual factor" were outlined. In this section a general description of a non-spiritual educational administrator is given. Why is this necessary? Cannot the reader assume that the non-spiritual type is simply the opposite of the spiritual type described earlier? No.

I admit to the following: I have known and presently do know very religious educational administrators whom I consider to be ineffective, and I have known and presently do know educational administrators whom I consider to be very effective who are not religious. Singer and Wooton (1976) provide a fascinating example of the latter type in Albert Speer, Hitler's Minister of Armaments and War. This is worrisome with respect to my thesis. The best I can do is to say that my argument is meant to be of the "in general" type, and that often behind a particular administrator's being religious or not I have found that there is a complex dynamic of critical incidents usually related to personally perceived success or failure, to delve into which for clearer understanding is beyond the scope of this article.

The educational administrator who lacks "the spiritual factor" I characterize as follows: usually lacks clear, relevant goals and objectives; deep-down is authoritarian, paternalistic (and pompous); views employees (and others) generally in terms of costs, constraints, and problems; believes that considerable conflict amongst his subordinates is a healthy, good thing; is inconsiderate as to interrupting others' schedules and activities; claims to know more about everything than his specialist subordinates do; refers to many who disagree with him, especially the younger ones, as being "wet behind the ears"; keeps subordinates uninformed and confused;(1) could be termed "a legend in his own mind"; and it is not the case that "his heart is in the right place."

This type of individual is self-serving. Budgeting and support systems (typing, general secretarial assistance, supplies, telephone systems, copying, ordering, equipment, and so on) are set up for the good of, or to make look good, the administrator. Further, this administrator tends to approach an employee only when he wants something or has some criticism or trouble to give to that employee. He actively seeks out subordinates' human weaknesses and "plays" on them, often bulldozing them into things through striking at the opportune time. He seems to revel in creating and maintaining feelings of insecurity in employees, using such practices as term appointments as an example.

A technique of recent years, with declining student enrolments (or falling rolls), is to remind a staff periodically (in meetings or through circulating "gloom and doom" written articles) just how fortunate they are to have any job at all. When an employee approaches this type of administrator with a genuine and relevant request or problem, the normal reaction is for the administrator to dismiss the immediate issue and to say things such as "You think you have problems - compared to so-and-so you are in fine shape," or "Let me tell you about the problems I have to deal with," or "I'm sorry, my hands are tied" (supposedly by someone else). Generally we have here a non-facilitator, a scoundrel, Machiavelli style. The flavour of things can get ruthless, dishonest, and brutal. My coined acronym for him is CHOA (Covers His/Her Own A--).(2)

In fairness the above description must be qualified somewhat. It is exaggerated for effect with respect to its comprehensiveness. And notice that it is not being said that the non-spiritual administrator does not possess some of the characteristics of the spiritual administrator; both may be hard-working, committed, and confident, and so on. Further, some administrators become this way not purely because of their own fault but because of circumstances (often of variety and complexity). In a different setting, a different person could emerge.

Nonetheless, the non-spiritual educational administrator is an undesirable who harms many employees, as well as those employees' families and acquaintances. The failure is in not using decent practices in dealing with others.

Greatness in educational leadership

Modern society and its educational culture have grown into something very complex with many varied and awesome problems. The key phenomena of the rapid pace of life and information overload alone would seem to be the roots of a host of others with which human beings are trying to cope day-to-day, and which many are just not capable of handling. Time management has become a big issue. One perspective is that technological development is racing alongside human beings' capabilities, and the former is overcoming the latter. Thus we see such a "therapeutic emphasis" in our world; so many people are breaking down.

Fortunately, writers like Jacques Ellul have given clear, believable accounts of just what is happening to society and man, and have presented suggestions for how the individual (and groups) can carry on full and comfortable lives.

Administrators in charge of institutions not only have to deal with the overall situation as individuals, but they are also immersed in a network that separates home, the church, government, business and industry, the media, education, and a variety of other social and cultural agencies. Many of them are continually grasping for techniques to help them cope - and the book publishers respond, pouring out the books on time management, tips from Japan, solutions for balancing all aspects of one's life, and so on.

In this kind of situation administrators can easily lose perspective on the ultimate goals of their organization. Consider the following from Singer and Wooton (1976):

> "... there is increasing evidence that management theorists and practitioners, regardless of the seemingly positive nature of their actions, have been and are creating and maintaining institutions which are destructive for mankind. The creation and maintenance of these institutions implies an insulated role of management in a highly interrelated, technological society. That is, too many managers today are so caught up in the procedural demands of their work that they easily lose sight of the important end results of their activities."(pp.98-99)

With respect to educational administrators, many appear to have lost sight of the basic goal of their organizations - to enhance teaching and learning in classrooms. Considering the complex milieu in which we now live, the spiritual or religious factor is now a requirement for educational leadership. Barnard has pointed out that,

> "Executive positions (a) imply a complex morality, and (b) require a high capacity of responsibility, (c) under conditions of activity, necessitating (d) commensurate general and specific technical abilities as a **moral** factor... in addition there is required (e) the faculty of **creating** morals for others."(1938, p.272)

I suggest that in our contemporary (Toffler "Third Wave") society these ideas apply with even greater force. And the individual great leader is one who has necessarily the faith (that he has an assigned mission), the calm, the patience, the emphasis on the promotion of warm ideals and humane standards, the sense of history, and the courage to meet the challenges - all things which possessing the spiritual factor brings.

I do acknowledge that I personally view "spiritual" as equivalent to "religious", at least in the sense that Karen Horney meant when she said that our civilization still attests to a secularized Christian ideology which sets the highest value on brotherly relations (1937). Interestingly she also stated that the structures of our world and its real norms represent diametrically the opposite, an idea that gives support to Ellul's argument.

Some specific suggestions

Drawing towards conclusion I wish to make some suggestions specific to educational leaders who have grasped, and are interested in exploring within themselves, the messages of my article. Those school leaders who are interested in cultivating the spiritual factor I feel should consider the following things (many of which mean running against the current grain):

- choose your staff with extreme care, staff in whom you have confidence to do an excellent job; give them security in their positions and then **leave them alone** to do the job. Currently there is far too much unnecessary evaluation and professional development being thrust on educators, and it is bound to create feelings of anxiety and inadequacy in already excellent personnel who by their nature are sensitive, responsible individuals. Contemporary education, to my mind, puts too much emphasis on general tangible product over quality process.

- provide excellent support systems for your staff; facilitate their having assistance with typing, copying, mailing, telephoning, audio-visual aids, and "busy work" such as the carrying through of school-related errands. Presently in many organizations the wastage and anxiety resulting from failure to provide excellent support systems is appalling; tremendous improvement results from something as simple as purchasing lighter (yet strong) stationery and envelopes to keep mailing costs down.

- with respect to goals and objectives, encourage the basic principle that thinking generates the power to think - students generating their own powers, and teachers using the collective minds of students as a key source for encouraging effective thought. The aim is to **personalize** education, the pursuit of truth in the company of friends, and the process is directed toward the full development of the human personality - self-identity, self-worth, self-respect, independence, interdependence, and self-evaluation (Wees, 1976, p.15). At present, there is too much of teachers playing a paternalistic role with respect to students, attempting to **do** things **to** students "for their own good", (Bereiter, 1972, p.25) and measuring achievement by how much knowledge has moved from the teacher's to the children's heads.

Greenfield (1979) asserts things more strongly. "... there is a profound sense in which to be a teacher or principal is to become a force as violent as those at play in being a guard in a concentration camp or being a pilot of an aircraft in a fire-bombing raid. The violence in being a teacher or principal is not usually overt, though as instruments of punishment they may inflict physical pain as well. Rather, their violence is found in the quality of their relationships with others; it is personal and it is existential. Teachers and principals stand for an organization, for society-social forms that require order and regularity. They represent patterns of thinking and values that have spanned many centuries. They are symbols of knowledge and rationality. They must impose a way of being and believe that it is better than the impulsive, undisciplined, and often unruly actions of the young. This shaping of a person's behaviour according to patterns desired by another is not unique to schools; it is part of the human condition..."(pp.107-08)

- explore the use of two techniques in the operation of your educational institution - the Organization Development (O.D.) technique, and the mentor relationship technique. The former emphasizes the building of competent staff teams to accomplish tasks, and caters to what Pascale and Athos (1982) refer to as superordinate goals (which include the spiritual or significant meanings and shared values of the people within an organization, and pertain to values or goals that "move men's hearts" and that genuinely knit together individual and organizational purposes); (pp.81-82) and the latter is an example of "working smart", because by delegation it assists the administrator with time management, and at the same time grooms younger able staff for the future leadership role.

To try such things as listed above involves vision, courage, and tact at the very least. Many critics would be concerned about issues of disturbing the "status quo" and innovating needlessly. My thinking here is that the wise educational leader will construct the teaching and learning system which he knows is best and then be prepared to defend it and **protect it** - leaving his competent staff alone to do the job well, while he personally spends ample effort in cultivating healthy relationships between the school and the external community.

Some hopes

My call is for "back-to-basics" in educational administration, placing priority on what is natural, healthy, and humane. And religion is "a natural" which our complex society, with its stimuli and information overload, has caused us to lose sight of.

Hope of a tangible nature I see in several individuals and organizations now spread around the world who are showing sincere, intense commitment to enhancing educational leadership. From my international perspective William Walker (Australia), Vern Gilbert (Canada), and Meredydd Hughes (U.K.) I much admire for their dedication. To me, these men possess "the spiritual factor in educational administration" to a high degree. And they are quite familiar with the critics' styles - the "threatened priesthood" (Crane and Walker, 1976, p.38), and the recurring reference to Peter Browning's "We're caught in the middle, Lord. It's a tough place to be," in Farquhar and Housego's 1978 International Intervisitation Program (I.I.P.) text (1980). I believe that these individuals, because of personality and experience especially, understand well my message, and the reality that there indeed are cancerous tissues in the life of our modern society and educational systems which take more than just intelligent administrators, but decent ones too, to face. And they would appreciate the idea that to read and absorb works of philosophy and theology is a "categorical imperative" for survival in our modern era.

At the present time, the organizations in which I see most hope for enhanced educational administration, mainly through their providing a forum for free and open discussion, are the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration (Australia), The Department of Educational Administration of the Faculty of Education, University of Toronto (Canada), The British Educational Management and Administration Society (U.K.) - in which Walker, Gilbert, and Hughes respectively have had deep involvement - and the University Council for Educational Administration (U.S.A.).

What dims my hope considerably at this point in time is that there are not enough educational administration people such as Walker, Gilbert, and Hughes. Further, I am not convinced that educational administration is best served by having preparation programs for practising it attached to university settings. Increasingly I am disillusioned with the lack of "the spiritual factor" within universities. Preparation for educational concerns was viewed years ago in many countries - and is so viewed currently in others - as best occurring in training colleges (outside of the university) which have a strong school and classroom practice emphasis.

I fear our universities have become much too politicized for my hopes for our educational systems to be realized. Perhaps we need to consider how well preparation for teaching and educational administration fits into a total university setting. "The spiritual or religious factor" possibly is being stifled there. If so, I feel we must act. Education is too important. Our children and all students are too important.

My impression is that people fall into three basic categories as to what form the roots of their lives: (in progressive order) being rooted in what one possesses, or materialism; rooted in what one does, such as one's job; and being rooted in qualities of self such as honesty, kindness, and loyalty. The reader will know that I advocate the third type of root and believe that by having educational leaders with this type of meaning to their lives we will have more teachers and students who develop this kind of meaning. Then our school systems would make giant steps forward.

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NOTES

1. Pascale and Athos's NETMA - Nobody Ever Tells Me Anything - organizational phenomenon, which they describe applies here (1982, p.160).

2. I feel in respectable company here in presenting such a term, as Frederick Herzberg (1986) in his Harvard Business Review article on employee motivation presented the KITA (Kick him in the A--) technique).

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Chapter 9

Educational Leadership for the Future:

Exciting New Ideas

In the winter 1985 issue of the *Educational Administration Quarterly* appears the article "A Futuristic Cognitive View of Leadership" by Dr. G. Barry Morris. The author's views could be restated in the following manner. The models which have been used to describe effective leaders in the past have been useful in our thinking about leadership because they have each contributed to growth and development of understanding. The models have all in one way or another focussed on the leader and the situation. The problem with these models is that they assume a more static and less dynamic nature of leaders and events than is warranted. Morris believes that a reconceptualization of leadership is necessary: this involves an integration of the individual (within the leaders) and futures-thinking components which results in leader outcome behaviours. Specifically, leaders who develop the kind of logical thinking advocated by Rational-Emotive Theory (Albert Ellis) with an emphasis on positive rational thoughts about the future will be most effective.

We believe that Morris' views are very relevant and timely. He is correct when he says "futures thinking" is essential in a rapidly changing society (p.11). Not only is the society changing, but the leader is changing as well. Both are in constant flux. Therefore, what is essential in leadership is a model which matches the dynamic nature of leader, follower and the situation.

To elaborate, change, constant motion and randomness are typically unsettling for most people. And leaders are real people in a real world (Thom, 1984a). There is a need for a sense of order. The effective leader needs predictability in order to give credibility and confidence to his followers. Continual change leads to stress, tension and conflict within people and organizations. A sense of predictability leads to calmness and confidence. The key thing for effective leadership is to create a foundation of stability in a world of change (Morris' "stability in change" belief, p.15). The launching pad has to be predictably firm. So then, a sense of security must be found within the leader himself. This is an important point.

Dr. Morris addresses the person of the one who leads. He summarizes Ellis' Rational-Emotive Therapy (RET) irrational beliefs (p.12). Many of these have a flavour of the individual relying heavily on people and events external to himself. For instance,

- The idea that it is a dire necessity . . . to be loved . . . by virtually every significant other person . . .

- The idea that human unhappiness is externally caused . . .

- The idea that one should be dependent on others . . .

- The idea that one's past history is an all important determiner . . . and so on . . .

If the individual is constantly responding to external cues he becomes nothing more than a puppet waiting for the strings to be pulled. The life of a puppet is uncomfortable. Puppets never initiate anything - they only react. All control rests external to the individual. There is no personal power. What the effective individual and leader needs is a sense of control over his life. Morris and Ellis are correct to refer to certain irrational and undesirable beliefs.

Julian Rotter (1972) suggests that there are acute psychological differences between individuals who believe that they are being controlled (externals) and individuals who perceive themselves as in control (internal). His concept is "locus of control." The externals believe that life is ordered by luck, chance, fate, and powerful others (Klassen and Turgeon, 1981). They perceive that they are not capable of influencing events and people. The internals believe that they have the skills and character to "call the shots" on what happens to them. Externals have low self-esteem, they have confidence in neither themselves nor in others. When placed in leadership positions, externals are authoritarian and inflexible. (Levinson, 1980; Johnson, 1984). In short, they fear that they cannot get the job done and believe no one else can either.

Leaders who have an internal locus of control have a strong self-image, have confidence in themselves and engender confidence in others. They believe that they can do it and others can do it too. This belief gives the leader the stability that is essential for himself and his followers. Further, it contributes to an avoidance of the "lonely at the top" syndrome which is so often described (Jackson, 1977).

Therefore, even though events and people continue to change and change is the rule, it is an internal locus of control which allows a leader to predictably alter events and influence people to lead an organization toward its desired goals.

We feel that G. Barry Morris is on "the cutting edge" of the development of leadership thought, particularly with respect to educational leadership or administration. T.B. Greenfield, beginning in 1974, can be credited with changing attitudes about understanding educational administration and organization, away from a more static systems approach to the more dynamic and relevant phenomenological approach. He began a renewed interest in a focus on the individual and how he defines his reality. In more recent years, sociologists attracted by Greenfield's views have introduced critical theory to the literature (Thom, 1984). Dr. Morris is a psychologist (as is Dr. Klassen). It seems natural and fitting that the literature of education leadership should now arrive at the point where educational psychologists and administration academics are providing ideas together. William Walker (1984) points out the lack of focus on the person and his beliefs, values and ethics in the study of educational administration over the last thirty years. Now, many are examining these things (Holmes, 1985) expanding on ideas from some of the original writers on management (Barnard, 1938). And, so too, Professor Morris.

Dr. Morris has helped the educational administration discipline by providing the psychologist's expertise on "mental set" and such concepts as "inner knowledge" and "being and becoming". His critics might suggest that his "stability in change" idea is impossible and ridiculous and that rational thinking in an often irrational society and world is dangerous. Yet he underlines what appears to be the direction in which leadership theory and practice should advance. Much of what he says pertains to a person's "locus of control".

In our own writings of late (Thom and Klassen,1985), we take the ideas further. We would suggest that the most beneficial "inner knowledge" for the educational leader to have and to utilize in decision making within our society is spiritual knowledge (Lewis, 1967). Others will have other views, but we feel that religion is that "certain something" extra which is "effective in reducing existential fears" of which Morris speaks (pp.20-21). With this "something", the leader will be able to make "personality investments" (Douglas, 1930) in followers and peers so as to successfully meet the challenges of the future.

Dr. Morris presents a fresh and spirited view for which we commend him. He points a new and exciting direction for an increased understanding of leadership.

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Chapter 10

The Educational Administrator and the "Problem" Employee

In recent years increasing attention has been given to how an administrator can effectively deal with difficult" workers. Most texts and periodicals for years had little to say on the issue but now items appear regularly. There are employees in many organizations, including schools, that deal in bad faith and they are cause for concern for the dedicated administrator. The prevalence of difficult employees within education systems is due to a few main reasons. These individuals generally are cynical, uncooperative, and selfish and attempt to block the efforts of industrious others. They are devious in their behaviour and criticize continually to divert attention away from themselves. Perhaps the person has been teaching too long, perhaps they feel guilty or are lazy, or they may have become caught up in the "me-firs"t emphasis in contemporary society. Sometimes they have some business venture on the side which they would prefer to be doing. Their entire approach may well be one of "What's in it for me?" And with tenure and collective agreements, these characters worsen. Whatever, to my mind there is little place in the professional education culture - especially with teachers - for such self-centered individuals; often young, impressionable students are at issue.

How can the educational administrator deal with the problem subordinate? First, he or she must realize that as the leader one has a definite responsibility to act, assuming that the majority view is that this person is a problem. For instance, the individual may be criticizing colleagues to students in his classes and obviously a morale problem will result. The administrator will find solace in the fact that if the employee is indeed a bad actor there will be latent widespread support for disciplining from below and above. The actor must be confronted. If he uses tenure and terms of a collective agreement to defend himself then counter with more intelligent comments on these. "The very fact that you are tenured means that I expect more from you, that you serve as an excellent example particularly to the more junior staff." Further, the legal system generally supports educational administrators who charge that an employee is not competently meeting the terms in a collective agreement. So, the emphasis is on confronting the individual.

Yet the excellent administrator is the one who shows grace through all of this. Usually the troubling employee is living a lie and he or she deserves a chance to change. In disciplining, some form of due process is appropriate. The individual should be given some time in which to demonstrate an attitude change. Often the leader could maliciously apply legal guidelines (if he or she wished), but it is better to follow the concept of "it's legal, but is it fair?" The worst type of administrator revels in making subordinates "squirm". The best type, to the contrary, shows compassion in reprimanding. For example, the school administrator would facilitate the dismissed teacher finding another position.

In summary, the management in educational institutions (indeed colleagues as well) have a professional responsibility to directly deal with problem staff members. No apologies are necessary when the known goals for the school and the best interests of the students clearly are not being served. The deviant worker must prove himself to be serious about improving. Further, the one in charge has a responsibility to protect well-meaning staff from these menacing types. And the leader will be applauded. But in disciplining the guilty party there is a need to show a degree of empathy, honesty, and elegance (humanism), the very type of things which one hopes the one being reprimanded will come to value.

Chapter 11

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Chapter 12

Educational Administration with Conscience:

Seeking "Truth" and Responsibility

You say the little efforts that I make
will do no good:they never will prevail
to tip the hovering scale
where Justice hangs in balance.
I don't think
I ever thought they would.
But I am prejudiced beyond debate
in favour of my right to choose which side
shall feel the stubborn ounces of my weight
— B. W. Overstreet's *Stubborn Ounces.*

Abstract

Educational Administration is a discipline and, such as for all disciplines, one of its purposes is that of approaching the truth. Schooling institutions ideally are all about "the pursuit of truth." But truth is not always recognized as that when found. In this article the authors claim that we know the basic facts about Educational Administration in liberal democratic societies. Truth is in our conscience. The reality is that educational administration is rooted in the Judaeo-Christian religion just as is much of the society. The conscience of educational administrators reflects a Judaeo-Christian belief system. This then would suggest that the educational administrator who practices the principles of this belief system will be congruent with society. However, many in the discipline - both educational practitioners and theorists - appear not to accept this idea.

Acknowledging the arguments against the notion of "absolute truth" and problems in interpreting and promoting religion, the authors develop the stance that the educational administrator whose system of beliefs and values are derived from the Judaeo-Christian faith is the one who will be most effective. He would act with the appropriate mix of conscience, logic, and willpower. The writings of such individuals as Barnard, Neuhaus, W. Walker, and Frye are drawn upon for support. The piece concludes with a statement on the importance of leadership in education and some suggestions for the future development of both educational administration theory and practice. In the main this article addresses a theme which many scholars would just as soon pretend does not exist. Reality tells us otherwise.

Introduction

Over the years the concepts of administration and leadership have been examined from many points of view. In the beginning the trait approach, which is an attempt to determine forces within the leader himself which contribute to his effectiveness, was popular. Next came the environment approach, an attempt to explain administrative effectiveness by looking at variables and forces within the situation. Then a combination of the trait and environmental approaches appeared; in fact, the literature describes the concept of "emergent leadership" whereby different personalities become in charge in different settings (Gibb, 1970). Other approaches considered the maturity of the leader and the maturity of the group being led (Hersey and Blanchard, 1976). Perrow (1973) comments:

> Leadership is highly variable or "contingent" upon a large variety of important variables such as nature of task, size of the group, length of time the group existed, type of personnel within the group and their relationships with each other, and amount of pressure the group is under. (p.13)

These developments in understanding administrative behaviour have accompanied the more broadly-based developments of changing views of organization. Progression was from the

Classical (Scientific Management) approach and the reductive Theory X, to the Human Relations approach and the developmental Theory Y, to the Structuralist approach, through to the Phenomenological, Contingency, Marxist, and Critical Theory approaches which have appeared more recently (Campbell, 1977-78; Griffith, 1979; and Thom, 1984b). Belief in the human relations managerial style is now widespread. Of late we have witnessed a move to Theory Z (Ouchi, 1981) and to "beyond a human relations approach" in a form of organization development (Walker, 1981, p.153).

Quite recently several education authors (Enns, 1981; Farquhar, 1981; Hodgkinson, 1983; Sharples, 1984; and Thom, 1984a) have been focusing specifically on the ethical aspects of administration. In effect this represents a renewed focus on leader traits - his values, his beliefs, and his morals. Further, it means a return to an emphasis found in earlier management literature such as by Barnard (1938) and, with respect to educational administration specifically, Althouse (1953), Flower 1958), Broudy (1958), and Miller (1965). This article extends this revived emphasis, presenting the argument that "the truth" concerning effective educational administration in societies such as ours is that the administrator should be a person with conscience, a term to be defined more broadly further in this paper.

Pursuing excellence

Ideally, those who study and practice administration are seeking excellence. Truth leads to the highest forms of excellence. Then, "what is the truth about administration?" Across the approaches to understanding this, one finds two common key facts of administration: (1) a task orientation or "concern for task" and (2) a maintenance orientation or "concern for people". These are elaborated by Bales (1958). So the broad truth is that the excellent administrator has superb task and people abilities. For purposes of this paper we draw the analogy that the specific truth is perceived as an alignment of conscience with reality.

Administrative behaviour is related to the nature of the organization being administered and to the culture or society in question. For example, in a dictatorship the incumbent's communication style would show many differences from the style of a leader in a democratic/participative management context. Further, commitment and confidence are necessary qualities in the excellent administrator, and it is of value to consider these. Commitment and confidence are tied to one's ego and are rooted in the set of values and beliefs which the leader holds.

In this article we are particularly interested in excellence and truth in educational administration and the contribution of values, beliefs, and morals to such. Conscience, then, is the primary focus.

Toward the truth

Our perusal of the literature on administration reveals that no set of profound, necessary conditions for excellence is totally agreed upon. Opinions are inconsistent. In fact, it would appear that the "scientific" model simply has not provided a complete explanation (Greenfield, 1985; Thom, 1984b; and Walker, 1984). Yet, with respect to educational administration, we believe that the "truth" can be determined.

Firstly, one must admit that our mainstream society in North America is a Judaeo-Christian-based society. This is not to deny that many of the values and moral beliefs of other religious groups among the minorities of North America are consistent with the Judaeo-Christian religion, which we concede has historically been dominant. We celebrate Christmas and Easter, say the Lord's Prayer in many schools, sing God Save the Queen, and follow a calendar which is rooted in the Biblical story. In many areas, the Jewish holidays are observed in the schools as well. In the province of Quebec the public school system is primarily a confessional one formed on the basis of Catholic and Protestant affiliation. Motels across the country provide a Bible in their rooms. Further, the Canadian Charter of rights and freedoms opens with, "Whereas Canada is founded upon principles that recognize the supremacy of God and the rule of law..." (Ricker, et al., 1982, p.169). These are just a few examples. Neuhaus (1984) comments:

> The American experiment, which more than any other has been normative for the world's thinking about democracy, is not only derived from religiously grounded belief, it continues to depend upon such belief. (p.27)

Also, he states that the democratic constitution was made for a moral and a religious people. Admittedly, there are people who say that society has lost its belief in religion, and that evidence of religion in terms of religious holidays is perpetuated out of habit and for commercial value. But surely there is intelligence enough in our highly developed culture that we would move to do away with religious hypocrisy - propose to no longer celebrate Christmas or Easter, and so on - if the majority of society did not give both implicit and explicit approbation of the Judaeo-Christian cultural base. It is clear that the consciences of the mainstream of people in this culture follow Judaeo-Christian ideologies.

The **Ontario Education Act** (1983) cites as a duty of the teacher the following:

> (c) to inculcate by precept and example respect for religion and the principles of Judaeo-Christian morality and the highest regard for truth, justice, loyalty, love of country, humanity, benevolence, sobriety, industry, frugality, purity, temperance and all other virtues. (Sec. 253(1) (i), p.221)

So, as with the general society, much of the education system's basic values rest on the Judaeo-Christian foundation. Of course, historically the first schools were established by Christian missionaries. Educational administrators were once "principal teachers". It follows that the Judaeo-Christian administrator is the one most congruent with the **officially stated** basic ideals of the school system.

The truth is that there are general societal expectations that the educational administrator be congruent with the above stated morals and ethics in his thinking. This charateristic has been emphasized in a little of the general management literature (e.g., Barnard, 1938) and in practice (e.g., several top government leaders have publicly stated that they maintain active religious affiliation). But, to date, the literature on educational administration has given little attention to the importance of the spiritual or conscience dimensions. One might claim that the human relations approach, Theory Y, and such things as organization development technology and decentralized decision-making are indicators that some individuals are developing along the lines of the Judaeo-Christian concepts. Moreover, the more recent writings on ethics in administration are coming closer to the point.

But critics will say...

There will, we recognize, be many critics of our claim of truth in educational administration. Some people view any religion as an undesirable "crutch" and the "opium of the masses" and interpret much of the Biblical record as far-fetched, ridiculous tales. Some depict religions as the enemy of democratic freedom, as entirely negative influences. Others may verify that they know many very effective educational administrators who are not religious and many religious ones who are ineffective. Many of these individuals believe that the notion of a secular society compels political actors (such as administrators) to be amoral and to practice situation ethics, giving public status to notions of what is morally excellent or morally based only as they reflect the "interest" of those who hold them (Neuhaus, 1984, pp. 31-32). Finally, some will criticize because they have trouble accepting any hint of "absolute truth".

To these types of criticisms we have a response. As adults we acknowledge that there exist many, many different opinions about the meaning of life. Indeed, there are contending truths (or "crutches"), if you will. As individuals and as intellectuals we are interested in the "truth for ourselves". However, each individual must decide from among all the contending truths, which is his personal choice. We maintain that the Judaeo-Christian truth is no more far-fetched or ridiculous than other philosophical approaches - and the major section of people in our society, past and present, have adopted it. Many great minds have accepted its system of beliefs, e.g., Einstein, Schweitzer, Tolstoy, and C.S. Lewis, to name a few. Northrop Frye, world-renowned University of Toronto English Professor, states in **The Great Code:**

> I soon realized that a student of English literature who does not know the Bible does not understand a good deal of what is going on in what he reads; the most conscientious student will be continually misconstruing the implications, even the meaning. (p.xii)

Frye was late in his career when he wrote this book. His experience time and time again confirmed that the stories from the Bible profoundly affect English literature and our whole society, culture, and imagination. He presents very good arguments to support the Bible's inherent worth and that it did not come into existence through an improbable series of accidents. He goes on to say:

> The Bible is clearly a major element in our own imaginative tradition, whatever we may think we believe about it. It insistently raises the question: Why does this huge, sprawling, tactless book sit there inscrutably in the middle of our cultural heritage like the "great Boyg" or sphinx in **Peer Gynt,** frustrating all our efforts to walk around it?...There is no... excuse today for scholars who, in discussing cultural issues originally raised by the Bible and still largely informed by it, proceed as though the Bible did not exist. It seems to me that someone not a specialist in the Biblical field needs to call attention to the Bible's existence and relevance. (p.xix)

There is ample evidence that many objectives of our educational system are rooted in Judaeo-Christian traditions, that it is still informed by it, and is identified with human beings' "capacity for goodness". We agree with Neuhaus that politics is the process of persuading and being persuaded, often engaged in by parties with different beliefs (p.32). To our critics we admit that our pluralistic society encourages those administrators who do not practise religion, those who do not believe in "doing unto others...", who do not follow a religiously derived conscience - we admit that there are many cases of this - but this does not mean that this is best. We know that there is "short-run" and "long-run" success and spiritual answers are generally not seen as "quick-way-to-the-top" answers. However, we contend that the spiritual-approach-with-conscience allows administrators to enjoy their position, leaving them with a sense of integrity and wholeness. People in the end **are** interested in ethics and goodness and justice (as reflected in court cases) and our common life does have a moral and religious character.

The challenge for administrators of our educational institutions is to be committed to the religious and spiritual beliefs upon which our society, families, and schools are based and to enhance one's capacity to resolve conflicts amidst competing belief systems. One does not have to be uncomfortable with the idea of principles, unless they are the hard, rigid principles defined by the pietistic. Persons with conscience support the incarnate and human principles of respect, trust, and integrity.

Escape to freedom

Currently society is witnessing somewhat of a leadership crisis. It is said that more and more people are turning down management positions with the argument that they do not need the kind of stress involved and would like to spend more time with their families. So too in education. Those who take up positions often do not stay long. For example, the average term for a Dean of Education is reported to be just three years. In the Fall 1984 issue of the Canadian Association of University Teachers (C.A.U.T.) **Bulletin** some twenty-five vacant senior positions of administration in education were advertised. These and corresponding examples from the elementary and secondary school panels would suggest that there is a significant turnover in administrative personnel. Technology has set conditions in organizations forcing the executive to respond to a multitude of interest groups. The pace of life perhaps is too fast for the average human being, and thus the stress levels are very high. To succeed, never before has there been such a need for the administrator to give a concise answer to the question, "What do I stand for?"

Psychologists theorize that individuals have a "locus of control" either externally or internally defined (Klassen and Turgeon, 1981). This is a force which determines to a large extent how the person conducts himself and interacts with others, and is a concept closely linked to conscience. In these times administrators are under considerable pressure to act in response to the requests and demands of a variety of politically-based interest and pressure groups (Sackney, 1984). Thus the tendency is toward control of behaviour by a locus externally defined. With many administrators on fixed-term appointments (normally from three to five years) and the procedures for a renewed appointment often involving a vote from most of the interest groups which one has been serving (according to collective agreements) the executive is unable to ignore the pressure.

With respect to education, there is potential harm in administrators continually basing decisions on political and group pressures. Certainly the need is great for administrators "to be in touch" with the demands and support of those whom they serve because, after all is done, if they have not listened well, they have not served well. However, the administrator who draws all of his cues for behaviour from others and lacks a solid value system of his own will be as lost as a ship without compass, chart, and pilot. The administrator needs to decide on the basis of what is **educationally** sound - what is ultimately best for students and teachers as they participate in the teaching/learning process. Decisions are rarely value-free and the decision-maker works from a set of convictions. Expressing no value implies a vacuum. The administrator supports what is "educationally sound" by following conscience and holding to convictions about what is

works from a set of convictions. Expressing no value implies a vacuum. The administrator supports what is "educationally sound" by following conscience and holding to convictions about what is

"good", "right", and "moral". Eventually this is a liberating process.

Victor Frankl (1963) submits that the greatest problem in Western culture is the "existential vacuum" or meaninglessness which we experience. Some would have us ignore our history. They suggest that life is so different today that there are no lessons to be learned from the past. Others would have us deny our values. They suggest that old values do not work in a new world; all we are left with is our present experience which is constantly in flux - hardly a solid basis. So we expend much of our energy wondering about premises. We already know the value base. What we need to do is follow our conscience - or an internal locus of control.

No doubt there is much in our culture that would suggest denial that the educational administrator to be highly effective should have religious faith. In fact, almost the complete opposite is implied. We are all familiar with the opinions that "nice guys finish last", "it's not what you know, but who you know", "it's not how good you are, but how long you last", and "those who can, teach; those who can't, administrate." The general message is that "goodness" in persons at the top and in control does not belong. We would argue otherwise. The facts are that administrators who adopt these slogans often fail. They fuel the leadership crisis and limit freedom.

The truth hurts...

Recently, while visiting in the province of Alberta, the first author viewed a sign attached to a large delivery van. It read, "If this Vehicle is not being Driven in a Safe and Courteous Manner, Please Telephone 434-...." And on the Air Canada flight back to Ontario, after lunch was served, a questionnaire was distributed to passengers and it began with, "Your comments and suggestions will help us provide the best possible in-flight meal service."

It is interesting that in society generally we tend to have a concensus of what constitutes "a safe and courteous manner" and "the best possible service" - a view tied to goodness, courtesy, and high value on good human relations. Yet, within the education field many individuals act and speak as if these same views should not apply. In the political arena, many educational administrators experience a loss of integrity if they twist interpretations of these originally noble views. Politics (in the general sense) can make many individuals sacrifice their integrity, not saying what they mean or not meaning what they say. In striving for power, control, and administrative security individuals may wrongly surrender their will to those they must please, and thus suspend their rationality and objective thinking. The following account, by M.N. Pokrovsky, of Lenin's power over his followers, illustrates the point:

> There was above all, his enormous capacity to see to the root of things, a capacity which finally awakened in me a sort of superstitious feeling. I frequently had occasion to differ from him on practical questions but I came off badly every time. When this experience had been repeated about seven times, I ceased to dispute and submitted to Lenin even if logic told me that one should act otherwise. I was henceforth convinced that he understood things better and was master of the power denied to me, of seeing about ten feet down in the earth. (Wolfe, 1960, p.363)

Here is insight into the sources of a leader's use of authority over his followers, if power is used to manipulate.

Why is it that within educational administration and educational organizations frequently there is a lack of trust or "dealing in good faith"? Many individuals have become political without being authentic. Administration without conscience - but usually with ample technique - is what we often witness. This results in individuals scrambling to protect their interests, often at any cost.

Many administrators have the temptation to carry on as if they are oblivious to the need for human decency and dignity.

They can be manipulative opportunists, and political grapplers who take advantage of the misfortunes of others. As singer Bob Dylan decries, "When you gonna wake up and strengthen the (good) things that remain?" (1979).

Not much theoretical emphasis is put on virtuous and ethical administration these days. In the literature of educational administration, besides a few pieces concerning ethics mentioned earlier, we see little. In recent years the literature has been monopolized by theory and research on **technique** and "the new theory movement." (cf. Sergiovanni, Greenfield, Hills, Willower, Culbertson, Griffith, Bone, Giles, Bates, Allison and Gronn in references). At the moment the theory authors are repetitive and seemingly confused and appear to be headed into ideas which are increasingly remote from the sum and substance of educational administrative practice. Our opinion is that this is unfortunate and incorrect. Much of the material more properly belongs in neo-sociology and epistemology. It may have application to the theory of organization generally but it is somewhat irrelevant to the discipline of Educational Administration **per se** (see Thom, 1984b). For example, some of Greenfield's more recent work (1983) proposes "an anarchistic theory of organization" whereby we should follow R.D. Laing's dictum when he says, "I have made an arrangement with my mind: I let it do anything it wants to" (p.299), and live accordingly. The person with conscience can not allow this approach. The model, in our view, suggests an inappropriate lack of discipline (lack of standing for what is correct and good).

Hope for the future

There is hope for educational administration. Neuhaus (1984) claims that North Americans are more religious than they have ever been, at least in outward manifestations. Further, it seems that in our society, amidst all the emphasis on sensationalizing the gruesome and the ugly (especially by the media), there is an "underground" of a multitude of people who volunteer their time and abilities to help the less fortunate. Also, as indicated by government legislation in recent years, never before has our community been so ready and willing to assist the handicapped. So our capacity and sensitivity for goodness and charity is actually quite high.

A most encouraging sign is the publication of the lead article by well-known Emeritus Professor of Educational Administration, William G. Walker, in the Fall 1984 issue of **Educational Administration Quarterly.** The piece is inspirational in "telling it like it is." Walker traces the thirty year history (1954-1984) of the discipline of Educational Administration and is incredibly perceptive and honest about such things as lack of quality in publications, manipulative politics surrounding developments over the years, and misdirection of effort. His choice in choosing "administrative narcissism" as the key theme is significant. The two most salient points made by Walker with respect to our "truth theme" are first, that those in North American educational administration need to look in countries abroad for ideas (to end the "tyranny of isolation" which has been experienced over the years - to discover more of "the truth") and second, rediscover the sources of conscience and ethics of our own culture which have been sadly neglected.

Walker himself "went international" years ago. Following a similar route, by means of a four year experience of theory and practice of educational administration in the Far East with a base in Hong Kong, the first author developed revised definitions of such entities as "conservatism" and "liberalism". He came to realize just how parochial in their thinking about society and schools North Americans can be. A pervasive, unavoidable heightened total awareness is the only way to describe it. Also, there was found in other societies the interplay of mind, body, and spirit in all realms. Granted, not all that emerged from the experience is directly transferable to our society, but much of it is. Suffice it to say that the international posting makes the "whole truth" more attainable.

Walker's second point is directly supportive of the main idea of our article. Walker speaks for many individuals in our field who have tried over the years to say that the moral fibre of the administrator is very important in the scheme of things. But, some admit to having given up in despair when their ideas were not well-accepted. Others have continued to express themselves but not as strongly and convincingly as Walker has now done. Walker shows exemplary insight and sensitivity when he refers to the teacher as "ambassador of society to the kingdom of the child" (p.16). And in the following:

> Contemporary practice in administering a kindergarten or system of kindergartens further exemplified the use of "soft" theory. Froebel, in developing the concept of the Kindergarten, justified his "children's garden" through transcendentalism, the unity of all living things with God. Thus, the flowers, trees, open air, and handling of the symbolic gifts all had mystical significance. Today, in most parts of the world, administrators of Kindergartens are still guided in large part by Froebel's ideas. True, the "gifts" have gone, but the color, the movement, the activity have not. No principal, no teacher, no architect involved in this area of schooling can avoid the stubborn realities of that tradition. Moreover, in the elementary school and to some extent in the secondary school, these ideas linger on. Dewey, whose influence on the education of young children of the world is widely and gratefully acknowledged, did not hesitate to acknowledge his debt to Froebel. (p.16)

How to make it work

How then do we align reality with conscience in Educational Administration? In this article we have attempted to answer this. Excellence entails task and people skills and considerations of context, but, in addition, we believe there must also be Educational Administration based on Judaeo-Christian ethics for true excellence and congruence with society's values. Our very culture, our Constitution, our family bonds, and our institutions are judged by these standards. Virtue, dignity, faith, forgiveness, grace, love, loyalty, support, honesty and fundamental freedoms and justice for all represent our capacity for goodness. And without these moral ideals democracy has no meaning.

Further, what we are saying is that when reality and conscience are aligned, it is actions that make the difference. And the appropriate actions do not come easily. They involve first a knowledge of the truth, attention to conscience, use of logic, and the bold application of willpower - an important ingredient.

We believe there are danger signals in our educational systems, and that there is a leadership crisis (Kerr, 1984). There are too few "great" administrators and too much administration without "soul". Education is an **extremely** important activity in this society, thus it needs to have **absolutely excellent** individuals in charge of it. Educators need to make every effort to recruit very capable individuals, provide them with superb training, and then give them continuing support for the sake of the students and the next generation. We suggest that administrators with high intelligence **and** who follow their **conscience** perform best.

We know that there will be many critics of these ideas. We have discovered that it takes courage to speak and write about "conscience" and the "spiritual" issues in educational administration circles. It is not popular. Perhaps there is too much affluence, too much comfort in the "guaranteed existence" (Kimbrough & Todd, 1970) which schools have for people to accept religious or spiritually based ideas and suggestions. Perhaps academics have great difficulty accepting any one value system and would rather continue to talk about the quality of life but not try to do much about it.

The fact is that despite our cultural heritage and our written laws and Constitution - all firmly based in Judaeo-Christian values - moral judgement and conscience are given too little attention among educational administration people. Only recently have publications associated with it begun to appear. For the thirty years of the study of Educational Administration as an academic subject the great emphasis has been on the "scientific" approach to understanding. But as Walker says, "surely, the whole organizational animal can be understood only when the 'scientific' and 'unscientific' are taken together" (1984, p.16). Greenfield also recognizes this when he says:

> The error most theorists make in thinking about organizations is to conceive them as somehow separate from life, love, self, sex, growth, conflict, accomplishment, decay, death and chance. (1985, p.4)

And later:

> Modern organization theory in education and other fields has also ignored literature that deals with administration as an art and as a value-based activity. (p.21)

New literature in this area is a journal, **Ethics in Education,** published by The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Canada. Also, Goodwin (1981) has a book on Christian leadership in organizations. These indicate the beginning of new directions.

Where is the "truth" to be experienced? Critics may consult current writers such as Frye, Neuhaus, and C.S. Lewis, and others more learned than we, who have grappled with the issue, e.g., Howes (1982), McDowell (1979), Ellul (1972), Barnard (1938), and Relfe (1981).

Educational administration has always been weak on philosophy and the result has been that too often politics overshadows what is educationally sound. There are many means of exploring the ethics/spiritual/conscience theme further. One suggestion is that a major conference on Ethics in Educational Administration could be held (this was tried several years ago in Canada but the enrolment was too low to carry it off). More study of the "locus of control" of effective administrators is in order. Finally, more insight into the proper balance of practising the Protestant work ethic and avoiding stress from over-achievement is required.

In many ways "the red light is on" within educational administration, indicative of a "spiritual sickness" and "weakness of conscience". To begin our "flight to health" the "truth" must be sought. The ambiguity and irrationality which can be found within modern day organizations creates an impression of many irreconcilable truths (Greenfield, 1978). Yet in the end we are practical, rational people who value sincerity and caring, and the dignity of children and the family. Too often we let the idea that we have a secular society lead to the notion that a leader should not have a firm set of religious or spiritual beliefs and values - the foundation of one's conscience.

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Chapter 13

Educational Administration in Search of Meaning: Serving with Conscience

Abstract

Viktor Frankl in his Logotherapy suggests that one cause of the present meaninglessness experienced in our society is the confusion of values. The authors of this paper contend that this is also reflected in the decision-making processes of educational administrators. There is confusion because the premises are changing. Recently Miller has referred to a prevalent "hunger for meaning."

Ideas are drawn from the work of Combs, Duke, Feuerstein, Fromm, Frye, May, Miller, Neuhaus, Rokeach and Walker to reinforce the view that educational administrators must make a choice from the plethora of values and commit themselves to a position that their community will support.

The main message of this article is that unless we adhere to structure of some description, we lose our ability to discriminate effectively between differing ideas and values. The point is that the very foundation of discussion erodes and dissipates as we seek freedom from structure.

Introduction

The concepts of administration and leadership have been examined from many points of view. In the beginning the trait approach, which is an attempt to determine forces within the leader himself which contribute to his effectiveness, was popular. Next came the environment approach, an attempt to explain administrative effectiveness by looking at variables and forces within the situation. Then a combination of the trait and environmental approaches appeared; in fact the literature describes the concept of "emergent leadership" whereby different personalities take charge in different settings (Gibb,1970). Other approaches were to consider the maturity of the leader and the maturity of the group being led (Hersey and Blanchard,1977). Perrow (1973) indicates that leadership is "contingent" upon a large variety of important variables such as nature of task, size of the group, length of time the group existed, type of personnel within the group and their relationships with each other, and amount of pressure the group is under (p.13).

These developments in understanding administrative behaviour have accompanied the more broadly-based developments of changing views of organization. Progression was from the Classical (Scientific Management) approach and the reductive Theory X, to the Human Relations approach and the developmental Theory Y, to the Structuralist approach, through to the Phenomenological, Contingency, Marxist and Critical Theory approaches which have appeared more recently (Campbell, 1977-78; Griffith, 1979; and Thom, 1984b). Belief in the human relations managerial style is now widespread. Of late we have witnessed a move to Theory Z (Ouchi, 1981) and to "beyond a human relations approach" in a form of organization development (Walker, 1981, p. 153).

Quite recently several education authors (Beck, 1986; Corson, 1985; Enns, 1981; Farquhar, 1981; Hodgkinson, 1983; Mann, 1986; Sharples, 1984; and Thom, 1984; 1987) have been focusing specifically on the ethical aspects of administration. In effect this represents a renewed focus on leader traits - his values, his beliefs, and his morals. Further, it means a return to an emphasis found in earlier management literature such as by Barnard (1938) and, with respect to educational administration specifically, Althouse (1953), Flower (1958), Broudy (1965), and Miller (1965). This article extends this revived emphasis, presenting the argument that for effective educational administration in societies such as ours the administrator should be a person with conscience. Viktor Frankl (1963) in his Logotherapy presents convincing arguments in this regard.

Me First

An observation of our present culture is that of an obsessive preoccupation with self. This self-serving, "me-first" mind set has crept into the circles of educational leadership. Certainly the increase in litigation is sufficient cause for administrators in education to be wary of their decisions and actions, yet too often it appears that they are preoccupied with "getting it documented" and "case-tight" so that there is little time or energy left for doing the job with which they were entrusted. Some become so efficient at covering their tracks that they leave little evidence for ever having been there and leave nothing for members of their organization to follow. They fear that "losing a case" could curtail their chances of promotion up the ladder of leadership.

This kind of administration represents a love for self and leads to a meaningless existence. One of the foundational tenets of Logotherapy is that meaning comes from a love that transcends the self and reaches to others. For leaders to find meaning in leadership, service must extend beyond self to others.

A New Model: Meaning Through Doing

One of the principles of Logotherapy (Frankl,1963,1967) contends that meaning comes from doing a deed. Therefore, it would appear that one of the responsibilities of effective leadership is to give followers meaning in their work.

A young Dean who had taken leadership of a small college noticed that many of his faculty members seemed discouraged and lacked clear direction in their work. The Dean was convinced of their talents and worth, and devoted a great deal of time and energy to encouraging the faculty members by telling them how he valued them as persons and also broadcast the accomplishments of his faculty members in the community. As the Dean continued this practice over a period of years, new life, vitality and purpose came to that group of academics. He thereby demonstrated two principles of Logotherapy. Not only did he find meaning for himself, as he valued his colleagues, but in addition gave meaning to his followers.

In an address delivered to a Toronto audience Frankl (1971) affirmed that one of the causes of meaninglessness in our culture is the incredible erosion of values. The authors of this paper would suggest that not only have values eroded but there has been a dramatic change in the process of arriving at values.

Educational organizations are dynamic and therefore are constantly in the state of change. At no time is an organization subjected to as much stress as when change is occurring. It is during these periods of transition that organizations are stressed to the maximum. When more change is demanded than organizations can tolerate they become inflexible and finally break (Davis, 1981). It is then the old wine skins will not tolerate the fermentation of the new wine. Because organizational changes introduce a great deal of uncertainty and frequently are very threatening to individuals there must be a high level of order and a high degree of predictability for the members of the organization to allow smooth transition and change to occur. When organizations change, then order, confidence and trust can be built around the ongoing values and principles of an organization. The predictability can be structured around people or principles.

A young administrator found himself in the position of Director of a school board and from his initial days in that position he commenced to prepare the leaders in that organization for his departure. He trained them well. When his five-year term expired and he was leaving, the organization functioned smoothly in spite of the Director's absence. The acting Director was chosen from within the ranks. Despite the potential for stress and dissension the organization functioned smoothly throughout the eighteen-month search period. Even though people in leadership changed, the established principles continued to give stability and predictability to the organization. In this case, the stability of values as described by Frankl, illustrate how meaning is given to an organization in a time of tension.

A New Language

A generation ago values were measured on a continuum. In the model positive and negative were the antithesis of each other; right and wrong were not only different but opposites. Today it would appear that we use another model to assess values. Instead of a model based on antitheses or opposites we assess value on the assumption of synthesis from a premise that values are not opposing each other, but rather are merely different; differences can most often be reconciled. Therefore the question of right and wrong does not arise; the issue is simply which preference one has. All choices appear to be amoral. This is a real problem.

The traditional model assumed an objective right and wrong response to moral dilemmas. Not that every deed could be neatly placed in one of those two categories but it believed that even where it was not clear in a given set of circumstances, there was an objective right and wrong response, although not fully known to the person at the moment. Just as microscopic inspection of filings over a magnetic field reveal each minute particle of metal taking an orientation to either north or south pole, so all events were valued as right or wrong. There was only one scale with two absolute directions and these directions were perceived to be the antithesis of each other.

Today the model of valuing is based on synthesis rather than on antithesis. Instead of a linear model with two polarities the present model is triangular with all options perceived as possibilities. Right is not opposed to wrong; it is only different. That anything could be so different as to be irreconcilable is not perceived possible in this valuing process. The mind must be open to all possibilities; there are to be no mind sets which are automatically rejected.

Our evolving language is now reflecting this change in our valuing system (Krauthammer, 1984). The focus is now on individual choices with possibilities across a broad spectrum. Here all opposing distinctions of up/down, right/left, good/bad are being abandoned so individuals are free to make unbiased, unprejudiced decisions without any hint of external or previous value judgments in any way coloring or impinging on the decision making process.

In this system generally the judgments of our fathers are discounted, the wisdom of the ages is ignored, the voice of the church is silenced, the lessons of history forgotten and conscience is muzzled.

Every decision is based on its own merits, precedents are of no influence. A new age has dawned. The old is discarded. This calls for a continuous scanning and searching of the premises and assumptions which are held. Going back to "square one" is an ongoing exercise. This happens when the value base is no particular value base. There is unlimited freedom to make essential and foundational alterations in one's values. Although this pervasive freedom is at the heart of current existential philosophy, many writers lament its reality and seriously doubt the possibility of an individual's ability to effectively handle freedom of this magnitude (Fromm, May).

The change in the valuing system has had a profound effect on educational administration decision making processes (Enns, 1981; Farquhar, 1981; Maccoby, 1981; Thom, 1984a; Thom and Klassen, 1986). The administrator is placed in a position where he must lead an organization whose members are not in fundamental agreement on the issue of values. Some argue that the present difficulties are nothing more than communication difficulties. Certainly there are communication problems, but at the root of many conflicts in educational organizations is a more fundamental issue: there is a conflict of values and widely varying views on how to arrive at values. Recent writings of such individuals as Bacharach (1981), Culbertson, (1983) and Renihan, (1985) illustrate this conflict.

Not all have adopted the new formula for deciding moral issues. Therefore, there are those who claim that right and wrong are opposing moral polarities, but also those who claim that right and wrong are purely individual preferences with no need to be moral about it. This is not only a conflict of communication, but a conflict of constructs. The former claim there are real issues that are worth dying for and the latter claim that all issues can be reduced to the level of whether one prefers green or brown socks. This is not merely a question of a generation gap, of old school versus new school, it is a question of whether there are such constructs as correct and incorrect.

At times this search for limits is expressed by submission to a person and at other times the need for limits is expressed by submission to a rule or principle. Millions in Germany were as eager to surrender their freedom as their fathers were dedicated to fight for it. Instead of wanting freedom, they tried to find ways to escape from it by submitting themselves to someone who could lead them.

The Bonds of Freedom

Paradoxically, while this generation cries for freedom to cast away the bonds of history, conscience, and church, it also begs for parameters, limits and a locus of evaluation.

It is generally assumed that two year olds and adolescents act out their aggression because they are rebelling against the limits that are imposed on them. However, it is likely that the motivation is a need to discern and discover the real limits. They have an intuitive need to know where the line is. Life itself can be accurately described as a search for limits (Fromm, 1941). There is a need to operate from a place that is firm and safe. And it is only a well defined, structured place, a place which can be clearly discerned from its environment that allows an individual to move to another place (Feuerstein, 1979, 1980). Change to something is possible only when there is something solid to change from.

Dr. Reuven Feuerstein (1979,1980) has dedicated the major part of his life to working with children, adolescents and adults from the world over as they attempt to take up residence in Israel. Dr. Feuerstein was initially using the traditional psychometric means of assessment in determining the level of learning ability for placement in the schools. To his surprise he noted that there were some people groups which as a culture appeared to have an advanced ability to learn. Given the nature of these psychometric instruments Dr. Feuerstein knew that this was clearly impossible. Genes are not doled out in that way. He was curious how some people as a group had a learning ability which was superior/inferior to other groups. It was his experience that those groups which were superior would acculturate much more quickly. They could learn new ways of living more quickly; they fit into the new culture more quickly with much less tension, and with greater comfort.

Feuerstein therefore was interested in finding the nature of the culture which allowed people the ease of changing to another culture and also the nature of the culture which made it difficult to change from one to another.

He discovered that those cultures, no matter how primary or how advanced, which had clear, defined thinking and behaving patterns, were the people who could quickly find their way in a new culture. However, those cultures in which the thinking and behaving patterns were not well delineated or were ambiguously defined comprised the majority of individuals who found a new culture to be most confusing and the level of resistance to acculturation very high. The Feuerstein example illustrates our point.

A Safe Place

Common sense might suggest that those who are comfortable in a well defined culture would resist the new, but this is not the case. Those who felt most at home and those who were the most comfortable and those who had a safe, well defined, comfortable culture were the ones who could best learn the new and best accommodate to the new.

The key seems to be having a safe, pure place from which to start. It is as a launching pad is to a rocket. If the launching pad is solid and firm and immovable, the rocket will have a proper initial boost and will be accurate in its direction. If the launching pad is unstable the lift-off will be in a random direction.

Feuerstein claims that those with a well defined culture have "learned how to learn" while those with an ill defined culture have been prevented from "learning how to learn". The main difference between the two seems to be the accuracy with which individuals are able to define the structures of their culture. In one culture the parents take ownership and go to great lengths to invest themselves in their children, carefully teaching them through formal and informal means the moral distinctions – what should and what should not be done; where values ought to be placed, how to arrive at values, drawing bold lines between right and wrong, preserving the wisdom of the forefathers. In that system values are not judged by how old they are. The other culture takes little ownership in teaching their young, the parents understand little of the distinctions between values so they just choose randomly or allow their feelings to guide them; here reason and logic have little place and random chance becomes the order of the day. Here neither parent nor child recognizes the moral distinctions. The point as applied to our article will be elaborated in the following.

Changing Cultures

Feuerstein is not alone in his comment that the basic building block of learning is the ability to distinguish, discriminate and value positive and negative behaviours, good and bad beliefs, and right from wrong. To be able to discriminate fine differences is the secret to learning how to learn. We have many other examples of cultures (e.g., Eskimo and Native American Indian) who for economic and other reasons have chosen to leave the traditional way and adopt the wider North American life style. But the change is a difficult one. Frequently they lose a generation or two in the transition period. The generation is lost because it neither clings to the traditional ways nor has it fully embraced the new ways, so there it ping-pongs between something which was and something which is not yet accepted.

The children in the transition generation have not learned to learn. There is little for them to cling to, little they are sure about, no clear hierarchy of values, nothing really more important or less important than anything else. And children are the "raison d'etre" for schools and education. And this is the business of educational administrators.

Perhaps the most harmful blurring of our vision occurring today is in our language (Krauthammer, 1984). Where great value seems to be place on "understanding" and being "empathic," the language becomes the vehicle of cognitive confusion. In our fear of being biased, being judgmental, and letting our prejudices show we tend toward the use of words which are bleached of moral distinctions, neutral, value-free and non-judgmental. When that happens distinctions and debate between values become impossible. It would appear that our language and culture presently favours the person who need not know distinctions, who lives in a sort of limbo between nothingness and nothingness– a land of meaninglessness where up and down, left and right, good and bad, right and wrong, and light and dark are synonymous, hopelessly blended, mingled and confused. Where life has become a cloudy, murky haze, a twilight zone where shades of gray predominate, where distinctions are discouraged and life itself becomes as meaningful or meaningless (it doesn't matter) as death.

Dag Hammerskjold, a former president of the United Nations, reminds us that the first commandment of mankind is that we respect the word. Because it is with the confusion of meanings and words that we burn our bridges and poison our wells. We lose our ability to think clearly, to reason, and to communicate. So then the lesson to be learned from Feuerstein's work is that "learning how to learn" is dependent on the ability of individuals to make distinctions, having a language which allows individuals the ability to make distinctions between constructs, ideas, values and behaviours.

We understand those who have recently written on the subject of becoming slaves of given doctrines (Bacharach, 1981; Culbertson, 1983; Renihan, 1985). The fear they express is that those who claim to have some sort of a monopoly on the "truth" in educational administration are closed-minded and discourage open discussion on the subject. It makes sense that logically you cannot improve on something that is perfectly true. And yet the point we would like to make is that a mind set that gives equal weight and priority to all values, that is equally open to all, that allows all, makes discussion impossible as well. This position takes the very tools for arguing away. When our words for connoting differences are gone we have nothing.

In all this confusion educational leaders must make decisions. And good decisions cannot be made in a haze of confused constructs and words. It is difficult.

Leaders Make the Difference

Our perusal of the literature on administration reveals that no set of profound, necessary conditions for excellence is totally agreed upon. Opinions are inconsistent. In fact, it would appear that the "scientific" model simply has not provided a complete explanation (Thom, 1984b; Walker, 1984). Yet, with respect to educational administration, we believe that the truth is at hand.

Firstly, the evidence suggests that our mainstream society in North America is Judeo-Christian-based. We celebrate Christmas and Easter, say the Lord's Prayer in many schools, sing "God Save the Queen," and follow a calendar which is rooted in the Biblical Story. Motels across the country provide a Bible in their rooms. Further, the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms opens with, "Whereas Canada is founded upon principles that recognize the supremacy of God and the rule of law . . ." (Ricker, et al., 1982, p.169). These are just a few examples.

Neuhaus (1984) comments:

> *The American experiment, which more than any other has been normative for the world's thinking about democracy, is not only derived from religiously grounded belief, it continues to depend upon such belief (p.27).*

Also, he states that the democratic constitution was made for a moral and a religious people. Admittedly, there are people who say that society has lost its belief in religion and that evidence of Christianity, evidence of religion in terms of religious holidays, is perpetuated out of habit and for commercial value. But surely there is intelligence enough in our highly developed culture that we would move to do away with religious hypocrisy – propose to no longer celebrate Christmas or Easter, and so on – if the majority of society explicitly or implicitly did not stand on the ground of the Christian cultural base. It is clear that the consciences of people in this culture follow Judaeo-Christian ideologies.

The Ontario Education Act (1983) cites as a duty of the teacher the following:

> *(c) to inculcate by precept and example respect for religion and the principles of Judaeo-Christian morality and the highest regard for truth, justice, loyalty, love of country, hu-*

> *manity, benevolence, sobriety, industry, frugality, purity, temperance, and all other virtues; (Sec.235 (1)(i), p.221).*

So, as with the general society, the education system rests on the Judaeo-Christian foundation. Of course, historically the first schools were established by Christian missionaries. Educational administrators were once "principal teachers". It follows that the Judaeo-Christian administrator is the one most congruent with the officially stated basic ideals of the school system.

Therefore it is significant that the educational administrator be Judaeo-Christian in his thinking. This characteristic has been emphasized in a little of the general management literature (e.g., Barnard, 1938) and in practice (e.g., several top government leaders have publicly stated that they have religious affiliations). But to date, the literature on educational administration has given little attention to the importance of the spiritual or ethical dimensions. One might claim that the human relations approach, Theory Y, and such things as organization development technology and decentralized decision-making are indicators that some individuals are developing along the lines of the Judaeo-Christian concept. Moreover, the more recent writings on ethics in administration are coming closer to the point.

Many great minds have accepted the Judaeo-Christian system of beliefs, e.g., Einstein, Schweitzer, Tolstoy, and C. S. Lewis, to name a few. Northrop Frye, world-renowned University of Toronto English Professor, states in The Great Code:

> *I soon realized that a student of English literature who does not know the Bible does not understand a good deal of what is going on in what he reads; the most conscientious student will be continually misconstruing the implications, even the meaning (p.xii).*

Frye was late in his career when he wrote this book. His experience time and time again confirmed that the stories from the Bible profoundly affect English literature and our whole society, culture, and imagination. He presents very good arguments to support the Bible's inherent worth and that it did not come into existence through an improbable series of accidents. He goes on to say:

> *The Bible is clearly a major element in our own imaginative tradition, whatever we may think we believe about it. It insistently raises the question: Why does this huge, sprawling, tactless Book sit there inscrutably in the middle of our cultural heritage like the "great Boyg" or sphinx in Peer Gynt,*

> *frustrating all our efforts to walk around it? . . . There is no . . . excuse today for scholars who, in discussing cultural issues originally raised by the Bible and still largely informed by it, proceed as though the Bible did not exist. It seems to me that someone not a specialist in the Biblical field needs to call attention to the Bible's existence and relevance (p.xix).*

There is ample evidence that our traditional educational system is rooted in the Judaeo-Christian tradition, that it is still informed by it, and is identified with human beings' "capacity for goodness". Many in our society have this orientation. Stronger families often do. We agree with Neuhaus that politics is the process of persuading and being persuaded, often engaged in by parties with different beliefs (p.32). To our critics we admit that our pluralistic society encourages those administrators who do not practice religion, those who do not believe in "doing unto others . . .", who do not follow conscience - we admit that there are many cases of this - but this does not mean that this is best. We know that there is "short-run" and "long-run" success and spiritual answers are generally not seen as "quick-way-to-the-top" answers. However, the spiritual approach with conscience allows administrators to enjoy their position, leaving them with a sense of integrity and wholeness. People in the end are interested in ethics and goodness and justice (as reflected in court cases) and our common life does have a moral and religious character. Meaning and purpose as Frankl reminds us comes through meeting the needs of someone other than ourself.

The challenge for administrators of our educational institutions today would appear to be a commitment to the religious and spiritual beliefs upon which our society, our families, and our schools are based and to enhance one's capacity to resolve conflicts in competing belief systems. One does not have to be uncomfortable with the idea of principles, unless they are the hard, rigid principles defined by the pietistic. We believe in the principles of respect, trust, and integrity. Our conscience declares it.

We believe that there are danger signals in our educational systems. There is a leadership crisis (Kerr, 1984). There are too few "great" administrators and too much administration without soul, but most are not taking heed. Meaning, in the Frankl sense, must be found. Education is extremely important activity in a society. It needs to have absolutely excellent individuals in charge of it. It is said that traditionally educational administration has not been able to attract the brightest talents, that they become the doctors and the lawyers. There is considerable validity in this. But this does not mean that our discipline should stop trying. Educators need to make every effort to recruit very capable individuals, provide them with superb training, and then give them continuing support for the sake of the students and the next generation. We suggest that administrators with high intelligence and who follow their conscience are best.

We know that there will be many critics of these ideas. We have discovered that it takes courage to speak and write about "conscience" and the "spiritual" issues in educational administration circles. It is not popular. Perhaps academics have great difficulty accepting any one value system and would rather continue to talk about the quality of life but not try to do much about it.

The fact is that despite our cultural heritage and our written laws and constitution, moral judgment and conscience are given too little attention among educational administration people. Only recently have publications associated with it begun to appear. For the thirty years of the study of Educational Administration as an academic subject the great emphasis has been on the "scientific" approach to understanding. But as Walker says, "surely, the whole organizational animal can be understood only when the 'scientific' and 'unscientific' are taken together" (1984, p.16). New literature in this area is a journal, *Ethics in Education*, published by the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Canada, and Goodwin (1981) has a book on Christian leadership in organizations. There is a new beginning.

Where is the "truth" to be experienced? Critics may consult current writers such as Frye, Neuhaus and C.S. Lewis, and others more learned than we, who have grappled with the issue, e.g., Howes (1982), McDowell (1979), Ellul (1972), Barnard (1938), Relfe (1981) and Schaeffer (1981). In fairness consider their ideas. Examine the Canadian Charter of Human Rights for its religious base. Visit some sick and elderly people, watch young children play and romp, and perhaps travel abroad to appreciate that ours is basically a caring and compassionate society. To the sociologists and others writing in educational administration literature we ask, "Are you not with all the questions, but no answers?" and "How close actually are you to the real day-to-day world of the practitioner?" Read the likes of Bill Walker, appreciate his logic, his depth, and his wholistic wisdom. Walker refers to the teacher as "ambassador of the society to the kingdom of the child" (p.16). And in the following:

> *Contemporary practice in administering a kindergarten or system of kindergartens further exemplified the use of "soft" theory. Froebel, in developing the concept of the Kindergarten, justified his "children's garden" through transcendentalism, the unity of all living things with God.*

> *Thus, the flowers, trees, open air, and handling of the symbolic gifts all had mystical significance. Today, in most parts of the world, administrators of kindergartens are still guided in large part by Froebel's ideas. True, the "gifts" have gone, but the color, the movement, the activity have not. No principal, no teacher, no architect involved in this area of schooling can avoid the stubborn realities of that tradition. Moreover, in the elementary school and to some extent in the secondary school, these ideas linger on. Dewey, whose influence on the education of young children of the world is widely and gratefully acknowledged, did not hesitate to acknowledge his debt to Froebel (p.16).*

Respect the breadth of this understanding. And marvel that the welfare and care of students remains in clear focus.

In many ways "the red light is on" within educational administration, indicative of a spiritual sickness and weakness of conscience. To begin our "flight to health" the truth must be understood and meaning must be discovered. The ambiguity and irrationality which abound within modern day organizations creates an impression of many irreconcilable truths. Yet in the end we are practical, rational people who value sincerity and caring, and the dignity of children and the family. Too often we let the idea that we have a secular society lead to the notion that a leader should not have a firm set of spiritual beliefs and values.

No doubt, our culture and our education systems are founded on religious standards. It should be possible for administrators of our schools to be spiritual - leaders with conscience - without apologizing. It makes sense.

In Conclusion: Beliefs of Effective Leaders

In conclusion we would like to suggest an integrated approach to the apparent disintegration which leaders face. Understandably, when decisions need to be made they must be accomplished on some coherent premise. A systematic body of principles gives the leaders a sense of integrity within themselves and will naturally extend to a sense of harmony and predictability within the ranks of the followers. We believe that effective leaders have always reflected a notion of single mindedness within themselves. Organizations which these leaders have led were more like organisms in natural life in which their reason for being was clearly singular and their integral purpose motivated all the parts. The individual players or organs had no agenda of their own except for the one that moved them all . . . the life of the whole.

Milton Rokeach (1960, 1973) has contributed a great deal to our understanding of the place of beliefs in human personality. Arthur W. Combs (1978, 1979, 1985) has for many years continued research on the relationship between the belief system of professionals and their level of effectiveness. We would therefore suggest that belief systems give each person a unity and harmony within, and control behaviour. Logically then, certain beliefs lead to more effective leadership and the opposite beliefs lead to less effective leadership.

Beliefs About Self

Beliefs about the self, beliefs about others and beliefs about the leader's purposes are simply stated; perhaps our critics will say too simplistically. Yet we hold that there are discrete beliefs and belief systems which make a difference in leadership.

It appears now that the leaders who have a strong sense of identification with others and who see themselves as a part of others are more effective. The less effective leaders see themselves apart from others. The leaders who have a sense of belonging with others, those who include a large circle and variety of individuals as part of themselves are effective. Leaders who are prone to making arbitrary distinctions leading to the exclusion of others are less effective. The more effective leader is comfortable in making the transition from "me" to "we". The less effective leader makes the transition from "me" to "we" with greater difficulty and with less frequency.

Leader's Beliefs About Self

More Effective	Less Effective
Identified: A-Part-Of	Alienated: A-Part-From
Capable	Incapable
Adequate	Inadequate
Wanted	Unwanted
Worthy	Unworthy
Trustworthy	Untrustworthy

Figure One: Beliefs About Self

The leaders who are more effective see themselves as adequate; they claim they can do it. They have a sense of identity with their task and profession and feel they can get the job done. Less effective leaders have serious doubts about their repertoire of skills to handle the situation and at times doubt their more stable characteristics (e.g., intelligence).

More effective leaders perceive themselves as trustworthy. They believe that their decisions lead to commitment which leads them to do what they say they will do. They mean what they say, say what they mean and do what they say they will do. Less effective leaders are not as certain that their own decisions will actually lead to what they promised. This is not to say that effective leaders do not fail. However, they realize that their response to failure is more important than failure itself. Leaders who see themselves as trustworthy take the necessary step to correct their failures in judgment and behavior. The less effective leaders use their mistakes as a reinforcement of their self doubts. C. R. Swindoll (1985) supports a quote of the late President Eisenhower in this regard:

> *. . . the supreme quality for a leader is unquestionably integrity. Without it, no real success is possible, no matter whether it is a section gang, on a football field, in an army, or in an office. If his associates find him guilty of phoniness, if they find that he lacks forthright integrity, he will fail. His teachings and actions must square with each other. The first great need, therefore, is integrity and high purpose (p.37).*

Effective leaders see themselves as worthy. They perceive that what they think, believe and do makes a difference. They have a strong sense of self worth and self respect and a high regard for self. This is not to be mistaken for egocentrism. The effective leader has a high regard for self. This is not to be mistaken for egocentrism. The effective leader has a high regard for self balanced with an equally high regard and respect for others. The regard the effective leader has for self is not conditional upon a constant unending line of successes. Failures are taken in stride. The less effective leaders lack this deep sense of respect for themselves and others. They have difficulty believing that their decisions matter and sense that what they believe, think, or do does not matter. They discount themselves and their failures simply reinforce their lack of significance.

Swindoll appears to agree with this view of a fully intact human being as leader:

> *The popular yet mistaken mental image of a successful leader is the tough-minded executive who is always in control, who holds himself aloof, who operates in a world of untouchable, sophisticated secrecy. If he or she has needs, feels*

> *alone, wrestles with very human problems, lacks the ability to cope with some particular pressure . . . no one should ever know about it. And certainly there is no place for tears! That would be a sign of weakness, and real leaders don't cry . . . nor do they evidence any other emotion that a self-assured air of confidence (p.60).*

Beliefs About People

Leaders that are more effective believe people are able. They believe that people make the best decisions when given the freedom and responsibility. Part of the effective leader's task is to raise the autonomy level of the followers. There is a deep sense of trust in others and their capabilities.

Leaders who are less effective believe others are unable. They believe that others need constant surveillance and scrutiny. The autonomy of their followers may be a threat to them.Furthermore ineffective leaders need their followers to be dependent on them for personal reasons. They fear that their purpose and place will be taken away or diminished if the followers gain too much autonomy. Therefore the less effective leader continues to hover over and make decisions for their followers in a centralized authority.

The more effective leaders believe people are friendly and that generally people are well-intentioned. This belief is not held naively, as though people are not capable of negative or selfish intentions. However the effective leader believes that people do the best they can. Sometimes they are mistaken, sometimes deceived, but when given the choice they would choose to be friendly rather than unfriendly.

The less effective leader sees others as unfriendly and a present or potential threat. They at times entertain a "they-are-out-to-get-me" mentality.

The more effective leader believes others have worth, dignity and respect which is not to be violated. They believe that the dignity of the individual is such that there is no end and no purpose so great that the devaluation of another's dignity is justified. Further, they view others as continually developing.

The less effective leader believes that there are purposes greater than some person's dignity. At times, when feeling personally threatened, less effective leaders, rather than differ with an opponent on the issue of discussion, will attack the dignity of the person.

Leader's Beliefs About People

More Effective	Less Effective
Able	Unable
Friendly	Unfriendly
Internally Motivated	Externally Motivated
Worthy	Unworthy
Helpful	Hindering
Dependable	Undependable

Figure Two: Beliefs About People

More effective leaders believe that others are internally motivated; that the prime source of motivation is within the person. The belief is that the most effective and the most lasting rewards are the ones which the individual senses inside himself. Internally motivated individuals respond best to encouragement. Leaders will realize the greatest benefit as they allow the creative energies of their followers to flow. Followers need time to think, reflect, decide, and act - and can be responsible for their choices.

Less successful leaders believe people are most highly motivated by external sources. These leaders generally believe people need to be told, pushed, coerced, manipulated and cajoled. The belief is that people are reflexive rather than reflective; they react rather than act; they are passive rather than creative and dynamic; that the Stimulus-Response model describes people best rather than a model that incorporates insightful, reflective and dynamic decision making processes.

More successful leaders believe people are dependable . . . you can leave it with them . . . let them handle it. The belief is that people are predictable. In this sense people are lawful . . . they behave dependably, predictably and lawfully.

Less successful leaders believe that people are undependable - you cannot count on them and that human behaviour is so complicated and complex that you cannot really make sense out of it. Less effective leaders believe that human behavior is generally chaotic and best described as being controlled by luck, chance or fate.

More effective leaders believe that people are helpful, less effective leaders believe people are hindering. The more effective leaders find their work with others fulfilling and a source of a great personal satisfaction. Less effective leaders find their work with others frustrating and more a source of irritation. They find their suspicions about the hindering nature of others to be more often than not fulfilled.

Beliefs About Purposes

More effective leaders believe that their purpose is to free individuals and liberate them. Less effective leaders believe their purposes are to control people. The more effective leaders want to leave the individual with more options and more choices and therefore more freedom and more personal power. Less effective leaders lean in the direction of limiting the choices of their followers by reducing their power and control. More effective leaders aim to share power and control with their followers. They believe that competition with their followers results in loss of energy whereas cooperation between leaders and followers regenerates the energy. Less effective leaders believe that competition between leader and follower are natural and that power struggles are reduced by pitting power against power. More effective leaders believe that their purpose is fulfilled when their followers are prepared to take the role of leadership. The more prepared the followers are, the better the leaders feel they have completed their purpose.

More effective leaders believe their purposes surround the larger issues of life whereas less effective leaders believe their purposes are about particular and present tasks. The more effective leaders are able to focus on the principles and laws of life which regulate not only the present task but which rule the universe. Less effective leaders become quickly confused with present variations and changes and alterations because they fail to see the big picture. Because their view is so limited in space and time the less effective leader lacks historic perspective and depth and is insecure about the present and the future. Every change to the less effective leader is more a source of irritation. The more effective leader places the present change of events within the framework of the world events from the past seeing the laws of life which have served mankind for all time. In this light the present has purpose and direction and is comfortably predictable.

More effective leaders are self revealing whereas less effective leaders are self concealing. The more effective leaders are comfortable in disclosing their own private selves in appropriate ways. This does not mean that they constantly refer to themselves but it does mean that their whole life is represented in their work. The less effective leaders have a need to be secretive about their private selves. More effective leaders are involved in the lives of their followers whereas the less effective leaders keep alienated.

Leader's Beliefs About Their Purposes

More Effective	Less Effective
Freeing	Controlling
Larger Issues	Smaller Issues
Principles	Rules
Long Term	Short Term
Wholes	Parts
Self Revealing	Self Concealing
Involved	Alienated
Altruistic	Narcissistic

Figure Three: Beliefs About Purposes

The purposes of the more effective leader are overall altruistic whereas the less effective leader sees his purposes to be serving of self.

On the surface it would appear from reading our description that there are only two kinds of leaders: those more effective and those less effective. We know that in reality all leaders are found at different times and in differing circumstances somewhere along a continuum between effective and ineffective. It is not a simple question of either/or.

The beliefs of the effective leaders are no recent discovery of the social sciences but have played a leading role in our history and are a permanent part of our heritage. Our consciences are well versed in them. We recognize these as positive and effective ideals. We maintain that where leaders have incorporated these ideals into their leadership role they will be effective: where they follow their conscience they will excel both personally and corporately.

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Appendix A

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Postscript

Education and the management of education are in an extremely interesting, exciting, challenging and opportune phase.* Currently it is so important to have excellent leadership in educational institutions. However, in this society of the 1980s there appear to be some serious roadblocks to attaining this leadership.

Educator stress, selfishness in advancing one's personal career and financial position through administrative positions, and giving up hope and yet remaining in a leadership role are some very evident problems. The fact that they stem from basic human nature make them inevitable and complex and difficult to resolve.

I personally believe that a decent and enhanced future for the theory and practice of education lies in those involved being profoundly honest. Being honest about what is desirable and undesirable in the current state of affairs (for instance, to my mind increasing opportunities for women educators is desirable, and term appointments with their insecurity for the individual are undesirable), being honest about the limits on individual leaders in the performance of their role (one cannot do everything), and being honest about when particular educational administrators are no longer able to perform effectively and getting new leaders to replace them. Further, I believe that the best kind of leadership generally involves the leader thinking of the welfare of employees before self. Ethics is crucial; in fact in these times educational administrators could do with leaving teachers alone more than they do. And, contrary to many educators' current thinking, I believe that "the great man" theory is still very relevant - individuals still can change the attitudes of groups of others.

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* The books *The Management of Schools* (edited by E. Hoyle and A. McMahon, London, England, Kogan Page, 1986) and *Managing Uncertainty: Administrative Theory and Practice in Education* (by R. Bruce McPherson, *et al.*, Columbus, Ohio, Charles E. Merrill, 1986) convey this. These texts provide some useful paradigms and terms, consolidate facts, and give valuable information on directions for the future of education and its management.

People like William Walker, Jack Culbertson, Tom Sergiovanni, Donald Layton, Vern Gilbert, Ross Thomas, Robin Farquhar, Ted Giles, Edgar Schein, Len Watson, and the late Don Graham and, more recently, Tony Riffel deserve ample credit for showing continuous commitment to bringing fresh and vigorous approaches to educational thought. For instance, Schein's work on career dynamics and Riffel's thoughts on "playfulness in a so serious educational management culture" are relevant important contributions for these times. Walker and Thomas for years have striven for theorists giving more aid to practising teachers and school administrators in their day-to-day work.

In a very real sense education from this point must get down to "basics". Commitment and hope, high concern for employees, ethics, honesty and common sense, and the enhancing of teaching and learning in classrooms are "in". Nonsense is "out".

D. J. Thom

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